PROCEEDINGS

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THE BEOTHUK INDIANS.

BY ALBERT S. GATSCHET.

Third Article.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, January 3, 1890.)

Among the three vocabularies which I have recently had the good fortune of receiving, there is one just as old as the century, and another comes from an aged person who has actually heard words of the language pronounced by a Beothuk Indian. I take pleasure in placing these lists before the Society, together with a number of new ethnographic facts gathered in the old haunts of the extinct race, which will prove to be of scientific value.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Since my first article the following publications on the Beothuk Indians have come to my notice :

Blake, Mrs. Edith: "The Beothuk Indians," in the monthly periodical, *Nineteenth Century* (Kegan & Co., publishers, London), December, 1888, pp. 899–918. This article contains important extracts from J. Cartwright's manuscript and interesting details about Shanandithit. An American reprint of the *Nineteenth Century* is published by Leonard Scott, New York City.

Murray, Chas. Aug. (author of the "Prairie Bird," etc.): "The Red Indians of Newfoundland." Philadelphia : T. B. Peterson, 98 Chestnut street (no date, about 1850 ?) ; illustrated. The book is pure fiction ; the first chapter alone contains some ethnologic points.

New York Herald, Correspondence of. Date specified below.

Stearns, Winfrid Alden : "Labrador : A Sketch of its Peoples, its Industries," etc. Boston : Lee & Shepard, 1884. Small 8vo, 8 and 295 pages. The description, pp. 254–272, suggests interesting comparisons of the Labrador Indians with the Beothuks.

Storm, Prof. Gustav: "Studies on the Vineland Voyages." In Mémoires de la société royale des antiquaires du Nord; nouvelle série. Copenhague, 1888. 8vo. The Beothuks are spoken of, pp. 361, 362. Storm assumes, that the Helluland of the Norse explorers was Labrador; Vineland, Nova Scotia; Markland, Newfoundland.

The Harbor Grace Standard and Conception Bay Advertiser: Linguistic and biographic article. Date specified below.

ETHNOGRAPHIC NOTES.

While returning from one of his annual explorations in the autumn of 1882, Mr. James P. Howley met Mr. Duggan, who owns a settlement at La Scie, one of the more northern harbors of Newfoundland, in northeast part of the isle; he informed him that numerous stone implements and utensils had at various times been found in his neighborhood, especially at Pacquet and Fleur-de-lys harbors,* and that the officers of the French men-of-war, as well as the fishermen of that nationality, who annually frequent that part of the island, took away many of these relics. He noticed that the marine officers took special care in collecting such specimens, and hence they may have been commissioned to do so by one or some of the scientific institutions of France. At Fleur-de-lys, he stated, many stone pots were found, the material having been evidently quarried from the steatite rock occurring in the neighborhood. Many cavities are seen in the rock corresponding with the size of the pots themselves, while others are still there half-grooved out. His description of the process, by which he supposed the Indians performed this difficult task, struck Mr. Howley forcibly as being identical with the one described in Lieut. Geo. M. Wheeler's "Reports," Vol. vii, pp. 117–121 ("The Method of Manufacture of Soapstone Pots." By Paul Schumacher; with illustration exhibiting method, p. 121).

A pipe of black marble found on an island in White Bay, and given away by Mr. Duggan's father to one of the French ship captains about 1850, had a large bowl and was beautifully finished, but part of the stem was broken off. The carved figure of what seemed to be a dragon rested against the inner side of the bowl, with its head projecting over the edge of the latter, while the tail was twisted around the stem (a similarly carved pipe from Vancouver's Island was deposited in the Geological Museum, Ottawa). Before this it had always been asserted that the Beothuks were not acquainted with tobacco or any narcotic usages; but they had a word for *tobacco*, nechwa, and *kinnikinnik* as well as *red-rod* are abundant upon the island; when the Micmacs have run short of the white man's tobacco, they make use of these. Black marble exists not far from where the pipe was found.

While engaged in locating land and making a survey of the Bay of

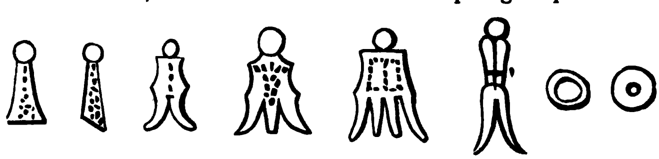
* Fleur-de-lys island and harbor is situated near Partridge Point, in 50° 7″ Lat.

Exploits during the summer season of 1886, Mr. J. P. Howley had the opportunity of conversing with some of the oldest settlers, who saw and remembered well the last individuals of the Red Indian race. He also collected a number of relics from an old burial place of theirs, which was known as such to the fishermen for the last thirty-five years, and hence had been ransacked repeatedly and by different parties. Lloyd visited it when there and took away everything he could find. While overhauling this interesting spot, Mr. Howley found a number of curiously fashioned and carved bone ornaments, with fragments of human skeletons scattered about. The latter appear to be of little scientific value. In another part of the Great Bay of Notre Dame, the interesting and valuable find of the mummified body of a boy, about ten years old, was made. Besides this, the following objects were found there and afterwards placed on exhibition at St. John's, in 1886:—the skull and leg bones of an adult male, several stone implements, a large number of ingeniously carved bone ornaments, models of canoes, cups, dishes, etc., made of birch bark, beautifully sewn together and all daubed with red ochre; fragments of deer-skin dresses, models of bows, arrows, paddles, a package of dried fish bound up in a casing of birch bark, and other articles. In the mummy a few of the neck vertebræ are disconnected, and one of the hands is missing, but otherwise the body of the boy is perfectly preserved. It is doubled up with the knees against the stomach, feet slightly crossed, arms folded across the chest, and when found it lay on the left side. The skin is intact, even the finger and toe nails being uninjured. The fleshy portions appear to have dried up completely, leaving only the bones encased in the shrunken and wrinkled skin, which latter has the appearance of dressed deer skin or well-tanned chamois. The whole was encased first in a deer-skin robe, then placed into a casket of birch bark neatly and closely sewn together, being apparently almost air-tight. The mummy bore a close resemblance to the Alaskan mummy preserved in the National Museum in Washington, and described by Mr. William H. Dall, in Vol. xxii of "Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge," 1878, 4to. The reason why this body was interred with so much care, provided with fine and new clothing and accompanied with food, tools and spare garments, must be sought for in the *tender years* of the deceased child, which needed more care and support on its peregrinations toward the future abode of the soul than an adult would require.

The same find is referred to in the article on the Beothuk by Mrs. Blake, and in a correspondence of *The New York Herald* from St. John's, N. F., dated October 23, 1886, where the locality is distinctly specified as being on *Pilley's island*, Notre Dame Bay. That bay may be described as forming the northern part of the Bay of Exploits, one of the old homes of the Red Indian people; the island is situated about 55° 42′ Long. west of Greenwich, and 49° 35′ Lat. The *Herald* correspondent adheres to the old and mistaken idea that the Beothuks are a branch of the Algonkin family. His statements, not included in the reports of others, are as follows:

"Only a few relics o the Beothuks have been preserved; they are either in private hands, or on exhibition in the Newfoundland Museum. * * * In the Pilley island excavation the skull of an adult was found in an excellent state of preservation. It has the characteristics of the skull of a savage, but it is well shaped and pretty well developed in the intellectual region * * * and proves that the 'Bethuks' were by no means of a low type. * * * Only three bones of the skeleton were found along with the skull. * * * But the greatest curiosity is the nearly perfect skeleton of a young 'Boethic' nine or ten years of age. The body had been wrapped in birch bark, doubled together, laid on its side and covered with a heap of stones; * * * it has somewhat the appearance of a mummy. The skull is detached from the body, the vertebræ of the neck having been destroyed or removed. It is well shaped and in a good state of preservation. In addition, there are in the collection specimens of beautifully finished arrow-heads, small models of canoes made of birch bark, bone ornaments, * * * which, according to the Indian custom, had been buried with the dead."

Small objects made by this people, especially *bone carvings*, have lately come into Mr. Howley's possession which attract attention through their peculiar form and nice finish. He thinks they were used as pendants to their deer-skin dresses, and all have some rude design carved upon either side. Many of them are simple flat pieces, either square or cut obliquely at the lower ends; others have from two to four prong-shaped ends:



Perforated circular pieces of bone and shell accompanied the above carvings, also some red ochre tied up in small packages encased in birch bark, and some neatly made birch-bark cups of an oval pattern and red-ochred. Also a small iron knife and tomahawk with wooden handles. Some of the above articles manufactured of bone apparently represent the human frame.

What Mr. Howley learned on the Bay of Exploits about the peculiarities of *Shanandithit* was the following: When any of the Micmacs came near her during her stay with Peyton and his family, she exhibited the greatest antipathy toward any of them, especially toward one Noël Boss, whom she greatly dreaded. Mr. Peyton stated that, whenever he or even his dog appeared near the house, Shananditbit would run screeching with terror towards him and cling to him for protection. She called him *Mudty Noël* ("Wicked Noël"), and stated that he once fired at her across the Exploits river, wounding her in the hips and legs, as she was in the act of cleaning venison. In proof thereof she exhibited several shot wounds at the spots referred to, and W. E. Cormack confirms this statement. The

enmity between the two tribes must have been at a high pitch to prompt a man to perform such an act against a defenseless woman.

Micmac tradition states, however, that in earlier times a better feeling existed between the two peoples. The Red Indians certainly were on good terms with the "Mountaineers" or Nuskápi of Labrador, whose language is of the same family as that of the Micmacs.

The above anecdote fully proves that Shananditbit became acquainted with individuals of the Micmac tribe, and this explains why Cormack has so many Micmac terms mixed with his Beothuk words. He was unable to distinguish the ones from the others. Mudty, "bad," is a Micmac, not a Beothuk word.

A CAPTURE FOLLOWED BY A WEDDING.

The capture of another Beothuk woman is related at length in the following traditionary account, which Rev. Silas Tertius Rand, of Hantsport, Nova Scotia, sent me in August, 1886. The event may have occurred as early as the beginning of the nineteenth century, for Mr. Rand heard it from an aged woman of Hantsport, Mrs. Nancy Jeddore, and she heard it from her father, Joseph Nowlan, who died about A. D. 1870, ninety-five years old. Nowlan had at one time stayed with the family of which that Beothuk woman was the mother and mistress, in Newfoundland, and had also lived long with the Eskimos. His regular home was in Nova Scotia, at St. Margaret's Bay, on the side of the Atlantic ocean.

The history of this woman is rather extraordinary, and with serious people I might incur the peril of being regarded as pitching into the domain of romance. But to avoid all suspicion, I shall transcribe the account with the very words of my correspondent, who made use of the same provincialisms, which have served in delivering the "story" to him. The absence of the Beothuk woman's name is a great deficiency in the tale. Some of the more learned remarks will be readily recognized as additions made by Mr. Rand, whose works prove him to have been a studious expounder of the Micmac grammar and lexicon (died October 4, 1889).

"The Micmacs have been in the habit of crossing over to Newfoundland to hunt 'time out of mind.' They called it Uktakumcook, *mainland;* so they supposed at the time when the name was given that it was not an island. Still it is as good or perhaps better than the silly and untruthful *long* name Newfoundland. The Micmacs could never 'scrape acquaintance' with the Indians of the *other tribe* there. Still, they found them *out,* also their *red* custom (their skin was quite white) and their power of magic, by which they became aware of the distant approach of strangers, when they fled on their snowshoes for their lives. But once three young hunters from 'Micmac-Land,' Meghum-ahghee, came upon three huts belonging to them, which were built up with logs around a 'cradle hollow,' so as to afford protection from the guns of the foe. These huts had just been deserted, but the three men gave chase, came as near to the

fugitives as to hail them and make signs of friendship, which were left unheeded. On and on they pursued--one of the young women of the party snapped the strap of the snowshoes and had to sit down and repair it. Her father came back, assisted her and they fled again; but the mended strap failed a second time. The poor girl shrieked with fright; she was left and overtaken. She could not be induced to go with her pursuers; so they constructed a small wigwam and remained on the spot a day or two. At first, she touched no food for days; then her fear relented in regard to one of the young men, and starting out again with the hunting party, clung to that youth who had first won her confidence. This she showed by keeping him between her and all the others. After staying two years with the Micmac people she acquired their language and was married to that same young man. She often recounted the eventful story of her life, and conversed with Nancy Jeddore's father on the circumstances connected therewith, after she had become the mother of a family."

A correction of a former statement needs to be inserted here. The Hudson Bay Company never had control of Newfoundland, but it was a number of English merchants who retarded settlement in the interior. The immense tracts and forests of the interior were given up to the deer, bears, foxes, wolves, and to a few straggling Micmac hunters, whereas the entire white population was *compelled* to live along the sea-coast.

Mr. Howley having favored me with more particulars about these firms, I would state first that these merchants were chiefly *fish dealers*, and that they purchased furs only incidentally. Even now fish is the chief article of trade with them. There are but few of these *old* firms now in existence, and of these, Newman & Co.'s establishment at Harbor Button, Fortune Bay, and Gaultor's, in Hermitage Bay, south side of the island, are probably the oldest. Slade & Co. once ruled supreme in Notre Dame Bay during the first half of this century, and to their employés is ascribed the cruel treatment of the last Beothuk Indians. But things are now assuming a different aspect, and the present mercantile firms no longer oppose the opening up of the country, for a railway act together with a loan act has lately passed the legislature. The railway is now being constructed, and will be of best service for opening the lands for settlement.

THE JURE VOCABULARY.

While engaged in surveying the Bay of Exploits during the summer months of 1886, Mr. Howley became acquainted with Mrs. Jure, then about seventy-five years old, who once had been the fellow-servant of Shananditbit, or Nancy, at Mr. John Peyton's, whose widow died about the close of the year 1885. Mrs. Jure was, in spite of her age, hale and sound in body and mind, and remembered with accuracy all the little peculiarities of Shananditbit, familiarly called "Nance." Many terms of Beothuk learned from Nance she remembered well, and at times was

complimented by Nance for the purity of her pronunciation ; many other terms were forgotten owing to the great lapse of time since 1829. Mr. Howley produced his vocabularies and made her repeat and pronounce such words in it as she could remember. Thus he succeeded in correcting some of the words recorded by Leigh and Cormack, and also to acquire a few new ones. He satisfied himself that Mrs. Jure's pronunciation must be the correct one, as it came directly from Shananditbit, and that its phonetics are extremely easy, much more so than those of Micmac, having none of the nasal drawl of the latter dialect. She also pronounced several Micmac words exactly as Micmacs pronounce them, and in several instances corrected Mr. Howley as to the mistranslation of some Beothuk words. The twenty-three words which Mr. Howley has obtained from this aged woman embody nine new ones; he repeated all of them to his brother, Rev. Dr. M. F. Howley, P.A., and I received a second copy of the list written by that gentleman, having the words accentuated. This enabled me to add in parentheses their true pronunciation and wording in my scientific alphabet.

THE MONTREAL VOCABULARY.

Although this is a misnomer, I shall designate by it another copy or "recension" of the W. E. Cormack vocabulary which I obtained from Rev. Silas T. Rand, of Hantsport, N. S., on September 1, 1885. It was accompanied by the following remarks:

"Sir William Dawson, my excellent friend,* sent me this list of Beothuk words some years ago, and I had to return his copy to him. There were copyist's mistakes in it, *u* for *a*, *u* for *n*, etc. I don't remember the name of the man who took the vocabulary, nor that of the woman who gave it to him. But I remember that the woman was said to have married a man of another tribe, and that she was the last of the race and the only one of the race ever *tamed* (to use the Indian term). She cannot have been Mary March."

This vocabulary contains 228 items, including the numerals and names of months; the words are syllabicated, and begin with capital letters. The copy before me was written by a scribe who evidently did not realize the importance of the document, for even the English significations are, in part, faulty, as *anus* for *arms* (memayet), *catte* for *cattle*, *celp* for *cup*, *ticklevee* for *ticklas* (gotheyet), on page 419, and others. The letter u is often put instead of n, l for t, o for a, t for k, r for z, e for c, and *vice versâ*, the whole being written in a sloven hand, as all the Beothuk vocabularies are which I have seen. The manuscript has haddabothie *body* instead of haddabothic, molheryet *cream jug* for motheryet, adademiuk *spoon* for adadimiute, jigganisut *gooseberry* instead of jiggamint; but, in many instances, appears to have a more original form preferable to the one copied by Mr. Howley, which I have utilized, as in giwashuwet *bear* for gwashuwet,

* Principal of McGill College, Montreal.

atho-onut *twenty* for dtho-onut, and in some instances has two words for one English term, as in *ankle* moosin, *and* gei-je-bursut ; (to) *bite* boshoodik *or* boshwădit ; *boat* and *vessel* adothe, *or* odeothyke ; and what will be found under *head, man, moon, stockings, sun, teeth, woman, woodpecker.*

This vocabulary is arranged alphabetically after the English terms, which stand *before* their Beothuk equivalents, and contains many terms new to us, which corroborates the supposition previously advanced by me, that the original Cormack vocabulary must have been more extensive.

To insert all the two hundred and twenty-eight terms of this new "recension" of the Cormack collection *in bulk* into the list to be given below, would have the result of increasing the confusion already existing in the wording of the Beothuk terms. Therefore, I have omitted not only those terms which are written *alike* to the terms which stand first in my list of 1885, pp. 415–424, but also those which rest upon an evident error of the copyist, as mamiruateek *houses* for mammateek, berroieh *clouds* for berroick, moocas *elbow* for moocus, etc.

It is probable, that W. E. Cormack made several copies of his vocabulary himself, which differed among each other, or were written in an illegible hand ; this would explain many of the "lectiones variæ" which now puzzle the Beothuk student, and cause more trouble to him than it does to edit a Roman or Greek author from the mediæval manuscripts with all their errors and mistakes.

THE CLINCH VOCABULARY.

A vocabulary of Beothuk has just come to light, which appears to be, if not more valuable, at least older than the ones investigated by me heretofore. It contains one hundred and twelve terms of the language, many of them new to us. It was obtained, as stated, by the Rev. John Clinch, a minister of the Church of England, and a man of high education, stationed as parish priest at Trinity, in Trinity Bay, Newfoundland. The original is contained in the "Record Book," preserved in the office of Justice Pinsent, D.C.L., of the Supreme Court at Harbor Grace, and it has been printed in the *Harbor Grace Standard and Conception Bay Advertiser*, of Wednesday, May 2, 1888, some biographic and other notes being added to it in the number of May 12.

Among these the following will give us a clearer insight into the question of authenticity of Clinch's vocabulary. John Clinch was born in Gloucestershire, England, and in early youth studied medicine under a practitioner at Cirencester, where he became a fellow of Dr. Jenner, who discovered the celebrated specific against small-pox. In those times, no law compelled a man to undergo examinations for diplomas ; so Clinch migrated to Bonavista, Newfoundland, and established himself there in 1775 as a physician, but in 1783 removed to Trinity. Besides his practice, he conducted services in church, was ordained deacon and priest in London, in 1787, then worked over thirty years at Trinity in his sacred calling,

until his death, which must have occurred about 1827. He has the merit of introducing vaccination upon that island, and there are people living now who were vaccinated by him. He was also appointed to judicial charges.

Simultaneously with Mr. Clinch, a Beothuk Indian stayed in that town, known as John August. Tradition states that he was taken from his mother when a child and brought up by a colonist, Jeffrey G. Street. He then remained in Street's house as a faithful and intelligent servant, and when arrived at manhood was entrusted with the command of a fishing smack manned by whites. Frequently he obtained leave to go into the country, where he probably communicated with his tribe. The parish register of Trinity records his interment there on October 29, 1788.

As there is no other Beothuk Indian known to have resided among white people of Newfoundland at that time, it is generally supposed that Mr. Clinch, who lived there since 1783, obtained his collection from none else but from John August. The selection of words differs greatly from that in Leigh's vocabulary, but the identity of a few terms, which are quite specific, as *hiccups, shaking hands, warming yourself*, induces Mr. Howley to believe that he had Clinch's vocabulary before him. One item in Clinch's list, "Ou-bee : *her own name*," seems to indicate that it was obtained from a female. Indeed, in 1803, a Beothuk woman was captured, presented to Governor Gambier, and subsequently sent back to her tribe. Mrs. Edith Blake, in her article, "The Beothuks," gives a description of her and of her presence at a social meeting at the Governor's house, at St. John's.

I have obtained a copy of the printed vocabulary through Mr. Howley. It was full of typographic errors, and these were corrected by him with the aid of a copy made of the original at Trinity by Mrs. Edith Blake, who took the greatest pains to secure accuracy. The "Record Book" states that Rev. Clinch obtained the vocabulary in *Governor Waldegraves' time*, and the volume which contains it embodies documents of the year 1800; this date would form an argument against the supposition, that it was obtained from the female captured in 1803. Below I have reproduced all the terms of this vocabulary, as it surpasses all the others in priority, though perhaps not in accuracy. The words are all syllabicated, but none of them shows accentuation marks; I have printed most of them in their *syllabicated* form.

Capt. Robinson has consulted and partly copied the Clinch vocabulary, as will be readily seen by a comparison of the terms in both.

THE THREE VOCABULARIES COMBINED.

Abbreviations.—CM.: The W. E. Cormack vocabulary from a Montreal copy of the manuscript.

J. : The Jure vocabulary.

No letter : The Clinch vocabulary.

Words in parentheses contain the transcription of vocables into my scientific alphabet.

abenick *gaping*, CM.
abideeshook *domestic cat*, CM.
abus-thib-e *kneeling.*
adayook *eight;* ee-adajook *eighteen*, CM.
adi-ab *wood.*
adjieich *two ;* ee-ajike *twelve*, adjeich atho-onut *twenty-two*, CM.
adothe or odeothyke *boat, vessel*, CM.
agamet *buttons* and *money*, CM.
ah-wadgebick, awadgebick (ā'wadshibík), *middle finger*, J.
amshut or yamyess *get up*, CM.; cf. kinnup.
anaduck *sore throat*, CM.
arrobauth *blood ;* ashabooutte or iggobauth (for izzobauth) *blood*, CM.
atho-onut *twenty ;* adjeich atho-onut *twenty-two*, CM.
bashedtheek *six;* ee-beshedtheek *sixteen*, CM.
bay-sot, băzot, besot, besut, *to walk*, J.
beathook *Red Indian*, CM.
beteok *good night*, CM.
boas-seek *blunt*, CM.
bobodísh *sea pigeon*, J.; bobbidish *pigeon, black guillemot*, CM.
boddebmoot *woman's bosom*, CM.
boo-it, buit (bú-it), *thumb*, J.
boshoodik or boshwādit *to bite*, CM.
botonet - onthermayet *teeth*, CM. (onthermayet alone means *teeth;* cf. below).
buggishamā'n *man*, J.; bukashman or bookshimōn *man*, CM ; pushaman *man.*
buggishamísh *boy*, J.; bugasmeesh *white boy*, CM.
chee-a-shit *groaning ;* cheasít, CM.
chee-thing *a walking stick.*
cobthun-eesamut *January*, CM.
co-ga-de-alla *leg.*
coosh *lip.*
corrasoob *sorrow ; snow* (snow, by confounding it with kausussabook ?).
cowasazeek *July*, CM.
cusebee *louse ;* casebeet, CM.
cush *nails.*
dabseek *four ;* ee-dabseek *fourteen*, CM.
deshudodoick *to blow*, CM.
deu-is *sun* or *moon* (doubtful).
dis-up *fishing line.*
dogemat or ashoog-ing (Howley : ash-vog-ing) *arrow*, CM.
drúmmet, drúm-mĕt (drúm't), *hair*, J.; don-na (Clinch).
ebauthoo *water ;* ebanthoo, CM.
eemommoos, ímmawmoose (ímamūs), *woman*, J.
eemommooset, ímmomoosét (ímamuset), *girl*, J.
eewo-in, éwoin (i'wo-in), *knife*, J.; yew-oin *a knife.*
ejeedowéshin, edgedoweshin (edshidowéshin), *fowl*, J.
ejibidinish *silk handkerchief*, CM.
emeethook *dogwood*, CM.
ersh-bauth *catching fish.*
euano *go out*, CM.
eve-nau *feathers.*
gei-je-bursūt ; see moosin.
giggaremanet *net*, CM.

giwashuwet *bear*, CM.
gosset *stockings*; gasaek, CM.
gothieget *ticklas*, CM.
goun *chin*, CM.
gun or guen *nose*, CM.
hadda-bothy *body*.
hadibiet *glass*, CM.
hados-do-ding *sitting*.
hanamait *spoon*.
han-nan *a spear;* first letter uncertain.
ha-the-may *a bow*.
hedy-yan *stooping*.
hods-mishit *knee*.
hod-thoo *to shoot*.
hod-witch *fool*.
hurreen and huz-seen *a gun*.
huzza-gan *rowing*.
ii-be-ath *yawning*.
io-ush-zath *stars* (doubtful).
is-shu, izhu, ishu (i'zhu), *make haste*, J.
ite-ween *thigh*.
jib-e-thun (or, iib-e-thun) *a trap or gin*.
jigganisut *gooseberry*, CM.
yamyess; see amshut.
yaseek *one;* ee-yagiesk *eleven*, CM.
yeothoduck *nine;* ee-yeothoduck *nineteen*, CM.
yew-one *wild goose*.
yew-why *dirt*.
keathut; gorathun (obj. case) *head*, CM.; he-aw-thóu *head*, ke-awthon *your head*.
kess-yet *a flea*.
king-abie *standing*.
kinnup, kinup, *get up*, J.
koo-rae *lightning; fire*.
koothabonong - bewajowite *February*, CM.
kuis; mangaronish *sun*, CM.; kuis *watch*, CM.
kuis and washewnishte *moon*, CM.
mady-u-a *leaves*.
magorrm *deer's horns*, CM.
mamasheek *islands*, CM.
mām-isutt *alive*, CM.
mamegemethin *shoulders*, CM.; momezabethon *shoulder*.
mammadronitan *lord bird*, CM.
mammasamit *dog*, J. (mammasavit is incorrect); mammasareet, mamoosernit *dog*, CM. (-*reet* false for *mit*).
mamoosemich *puppy*, CM.
manarooit *blanket*, CM.
mangaronish; see kuis.
manjebathook *beard* (on page 421: *bread*, which is probably false; see annawhadya), CM.
mau-the-au-thaw *crying*; cf. su-authou.
memajet *anus*, CM. (false for *arms*).
memet *hand*, CM.; memen (obj. case) *hands and fingers;* meman momasthus *shaking hands*.
me-ma-za *tongue*.
menome *dogberries*.
me-roo-pish *twine, thread*.
midy-u theu *sneezing*.
mithie *coal*.
mi-a-woth *flying;* meaoth *flying*, CM.
mis-muth *ear*.
moadamütt *to boil, as dinner*, CM.
mom-au *a seal*.
mome-augh *eyebrow*.
moocus *elbow*.
moosin and gei-je-bursüt *ankle*, CM.
mowgeenúck, mougenuk (maudshinúk), *iron*, J.; mowageene *iron*.
mudy-rau *hiccups*.
mud-ty *bad* (dirty); mudeet *bad* (of character).
mush-a-bauth *oakum* or *tow*.
nethabete *cattle*, CM.
nine *knife*, CM. (false for u-ine, yewoin).
ninejeek *five*; ee-ninezeek *fifteen*, CM.
no-mash-nush *scalping*.
now-aut *hatchet*.
obodish, obbodish, *cat*, J.; obditch *a beast;* cf. abideeshook.

THE THREE VOCABULARIES COMBINED.

Abbreviations.—CM.: The W. E. Cormack vocabulary fro[illegible] copy of the manuscript.

J. : The Jure vocabulary.

No letter : The Clinch vocabulary.

Words in parentheses contain the transcription of [illegible] scientific alphabet.

abenick *gaping*, CM.
abideeshook *domestic cat*, CM.
abus-thib-e *kneeling.*
adayook *eight;* ee-adajook *eighteen*, CM.
adi-ab *wood.*
adjieich *two;* ee-ajike *twelve*, adjeich atho-onut *twenty-two*, CM.
adothe or odeothyke *boat, vessel*, CM.
agamet *buttons* and *money*, CM.
ah-wadgebick, awadgebick (ā'wadshibík), *middle finger*, J.
amshut or yamyess *get up*, CM.; cf. kinnup.
anaduck *sore throat*, CM.
arrobauth *blood;* ashabooutte or iggobauth (for izzobauth) *blood*, CM.
atho-onut *twenty;* adjeich atho-onut *twenty-two*, CM.
bashedtheek *six;* ee-beshedtheek *sixteen*, CM.
bay-sot, băzot, besot, besut, *to walk*, J.
beathook *Red Indian*, CM.
beteok *good night*, CM.
boas-seek *blunt*, CM.
bobodísh *sea pigeon*, J.; bobbidish *pigeon, black guillemot*, CM.
boddebmoot *woman's bosom*, CM.
boo-it, buit (bú-it), *thumb*, J.
boshoodik or boshwādit *to bite*, [illegible]
botonet - onthermayet *teeth*, [illegible] (onthermayet alone means [illegible] cf. below).
buggishamā'n *man*, J.; bukash[illegible] or bookshimōn *man*, CM
aman *man.*

buggishamí-h *bo*[illegible] *white boy*, CM
chee-a-shit *gro*[illegible]
chee-thing [illegible]
cobthun-eesan
co-ga-de-alla [illegible]
coosh *lip.*
corrasoob [illegible]
confou[illegible]
book [illegible]
cowasaz[illegible]
cusebee [illegible]
cush [illegible]
dabseek [illegible]
CM
desh[illegible]
deu i[illegible]
dis[illegible]
do[illegible]
d[illegible]

ᴇMARKS ON SINGLE TERMS.

' occurs so frequently that we may have to consider it
· derivation of substantives ; thus we have, *e. g.*, izzo-
th *catching fish*, mushabauth *oakum, tow*.
emamoset *child, girl*, resemble strongly the follow-
·.ns : amemens *child* in Lenape (Barton), amosens
'an (Strachey, Vocab., p. 183). Ama'ma is *mother* in
it.

ırs but four times in the words which have come to our
·ek. lathun, messiliget-hook, nadalahet. In view of the
vriting in which all of these vocabularies have reached us,
› doubt its existence in the language.
·rries is a derivative of manus *berries*. mamoose *whortle-*
- perhaps misspelt for manoose. Cf. min *grain, fruit,*
ıstern Algonkin dialects.
·ok, *ice;* E. Petitot renders the Montagnais (Tinné) ezogè
· ınche" (*frost*), t'en-zure by "glace vive." The resem-
.ıe Beothuk word seems only fortuitous.
fish is identical with bobboosoret *codfish* (or *bacalaos,*

ıating ; the latter probably misspelt for *beating*.
.umb, CM., is misspelling of itweena, which means *thigh*, not

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previous articles and specified in "Proceedings" of 1886, pp. 426
On the contrary, they corroborate them intrinsically and would
ny themselves be sufficient to prove that the Beothuk race and
ıe were entirely *sui generis*. By the list contained in this "Third
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ıundred and eighty, which is much more than we know of the ma-
of other American languages and dialects.

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ne races in their vicinity seems to testify by itself to a radical difference
ween these and the Algonkin tribes. The fact that we know of no other
ıes of the Beothuk people than Newfoundland, does not entitle us to con-
ıture, that they were once driven from the mainland opposite and settled
- refugees upon the shores of that vast island. It is more probable that
.- race anciently inhabited a part of the mainland *simultaneously* with
.e island, which would presuppose that the Beothuks were then more
populous than in the historic period. Numerous causes may account for
the fact that we do not notice them elsewhere since the beginning of
the sixteenth century : fragmentary condition of our historic knowledge,

obosheen *warming yourself.*
obseedeek *gloves,* CM.
odasweet-eeshamut *December,* CM.
od-au-sot *rolling.*
oddesamick, ŏdd-essămick (odesă·mĭk), *little finger,* J.
odemet *ochre,* CM. (ochre mixed with oil, emet, Howley).
onnus, onnŭs (o′nĕs), *forefinger, index,* J.
oodzook *seven;* ee·oodyook *seventeen,* CM.
oregreen (?) *scissors,* CM.
oreru *ice,* CM.; cf. ozeru.
osarate *rowing,* CM.
ōsweet (ō′swit) *deer,* J.; osweet, CM.
Ou-bee (nom. pr. fem.) "*her own name.*"
ou-gen *stone.*
ou-ner-mish *a little bird* (species of?).
outhermay *teeth.*
ow-the-je-arra-thunum *to shoot an arrow perpendicularly.*
pa-pa de aden *a fork.*
pau-shee *birch rind; paper.*
peatha *fur, hair of beast.*
pedth-ae *rain.*
pe-to-tho-risk *thunder.*
pig-a-thee *a scab.*
pis-au-wau *lying.*
podibeac *oar,* CM.; poodybe·ac *an oar.*
poopusraut *fish.*
poorth *thumb;* cf. boad.
popa-dish *a large bird* (species of?).
posson *the back.*
poss-thee *smoke;* cf. baasdic.
pug·a-thuse *beating;* pug a·tho *throwing.*
pug-a·zoa *eating.*
pug·e-non *to break a stick.*
puth-u-auth *sleep.*
shabathooret *trap,* CM.
shamye *currants.*
shansee *ten,* CM.
shaub-ab-un·o *I have to throw your trap.*
shau-da-me *partridge berries.*
shebohowit; sheebuint *woodpecker,* CM.
she-both *kissing.*
shĕdbasing *upper arm,* CM.
she-ga-me *to blow the nose;* shegamik, CM.
shemabogosthue *moskito* (black fly), CM.
shendeek (or sheudeek ?) *three;* ee-shaedeek *thirteen,* CM.
shisth *grass.*
shucodimit *Indian cup,* CM.
sou-sot *spruce rind.*
stioeena *thumb,* CM.
su-au·thou *singing.*
su-gu-mith *bird's excrement.*
susut *fowl, partridge.*
tapaithook *canoe,* CM.; cf. thub·a-thew.
tedesheet *neck.*
the-oun *the chin;* cf. goun.
thub-a-thew *boat or canoe.*
thub-wed gie *dancing.*
tis eu-thun *wind.*
traw-na-soo *spruce.*
tus-mug *pin;* tus-mus *needle.*
tu-wid·yie *swimming.*
waine *hoop,* CM.
washeu *night, darkness,* CM.
wasumaw - eeseek *April, June, September,* CM.
washewnishte; see kuis and washeu.
weshemesh *herring,* CM.
who-ish-me *laughing.*
wĭddun (wĭdun or wĭdăn), *asleep;* also euphemistically for *dead.*
woodrut *fire,* CM.
wothamashet *running,* CM.; wothamashee *running.*
wooth-yan *walking.*
wyabick (wáyabik) *ring-finger,* J.
zatrook *husband,* CM.
zosweet *partridge* (willow grouse), CM. (same word as susut).

REMARKS ON SINGLE TERMS.

The ending -bauth occurs so frequently that we may have to consider it as a suffix used in the derivation of substantives ; thus we have, *e. g.*, izzobauth *blood*, ersh-bauth *catching fish*, mushabauth *oakum, tow*.

emamoose *woman*, emamoset *child, girl*, resemble strongly the following Algonkin terms : amemens *child* in Lenape (Barton), amosens *daughter* in Virginian (Strachey, Vocab., p. 183). Ama'ma is *mother* in the Greenland Inuit.

The sound *l* occurs but four times in the words which have come to our notice : adolthtek, lathun, messiliget-hook, nadalahet. In view of the negligent handwriting in which all of these vocabularies have reached us, it is permitted to doubt its existence in the language.

menome *dogberries* is a derivative of manus *berries*. mamoose *whortleberries*, Rob., is perhaps misspelt for manoose. Cf. min *grain, fruit, berry*, in all Eastern Algonkin dialects.

ozeru, ozrook, *ice ;* E. Petitot renders the Montagnais (Tinné) ezogè by "gelée blanche" (*frost*), t'en-zure by "glace vive." The resemblance with the Beothuk word seems only fortuitous.

poopusraut *fish* is identical with bobboosoret *codfish* (or *bacalaos*, Mscr.).

pug-ȧ-zoa *eating* ; the latter probably misspelt for *beating*.

stioeena *thumb*, CM., is misspelling of itweena, which means *thigh*, not *thumb*.

The new ethnologic and linguistic facts embodied in this "Third Article" do not alter in the least the general results which I deduced from my two previous articles and specified in "Proceedings" of 1886, pp. 426 to 428. On the contrary, they corroborate them intrinsically and would almost by themselves be sufficient to prove that the Beothuk race and language were entirely *sui generis*. By the list contained in this "Third Article" the number of Beothuk vocables known to us is brought up to four hundred and eighty, which is much more than we know of the majority of other American languages and dialects.

The violent hatred and contempt which the Beothuks nourished against all the races in their vicinity seems to testify by itself to a radical difference between these and the Algonkin tribes. The fact that we know of no other homes of the Beothuk people than Newfoundland, does not entitle us to conjecture, that they were once driven from the mainland opposite and settled as refugees upon the shores of that vast island. It is more probable that this race anciently inhabited a part of the mainland *simultaneously* with the island, which would presuppose that the Beothuks were then more populous than in the historic period. Numerous causes may account for the fact that we do not notice them elsewhere since the beginning of the sixteenth century : fragmentary condition of our historic knowledge,

rigorous colds, epidemics, want of game, famine, infanticide, may be wars among themselves or with strangers. Some of these potent factors may have coöperated in extinguishing the Beothuks of the mainland, from whom the island Beothuks must have once descended—while the tribes settled upon Newfoundland may have increased and prospered, owing to to a more genial climate and other physical agencies.

ENGLISH-BEOTHUK VOCABULARY.

alive mām-isutt.
ankle; see moosin.
anus; see memajet.
April wasumaw - eeseek.
arm, upper, shēdbasing.
arms memajet.
arrow; see dogemat.
asleep wi'ddun.
bad mud-ty.
back, the, posson.
beard; see manjebathook.
bear giwashuwet.
beast; see obodish.
beast, hair or fur of, peatha.
beating pug-a thuse.
birch rind pau-shee.
bird, a little (not specified), ou nermish.
bird, a large (not specified), popadish.
bite, to, boshoodik.
black guillemot; see *sea pigeon.*
blanket manarooit.
blood arrobauth.
blow, to, deshudodoick.
blow the nose, to, she-ga-me.
bosom, woman's, boddebmoot.
blunt boas-seek.
boat adothe, thub-a-thew; see *canoe.*
body hadda-bothy.
boil, to, v. trans., moadamūtt.
bow ha-the-may.
boy buggishamish.
break a stick, to, pug-e-non.
buttons agamet.
canoe tapaithook; thub-a-thew; see *boat.*
cat, domestic, abideshook; obbodish.
cattle nethabete.
catching fish ersh-bauth.
chin goun, the-oun.
coal mithie.
crying mau-the-au-thaw.
currants shamye.
dancing thub-wed-gie.
darkness washeu.
dead widdun.
December odasweet - eeshamut.
deer ōsweet.
deer's horns magorrm.
dirt yew-why.
dirty mud-ty.
dog; see mammasamit.
dogberries menome.
dogwood emeethook.
ear mis-muth.
eating; see pug-a-zoa.
eight adayook.
eighteen; see *eight.*
elbow moocus.
eleven; see yaseek.
excrement of bird su-gu-mith.
eyebrow mome-augh.
feathers eve-nau.
February koothabonong - bewajowite.
fifteen; see ninejeek.
fingers; see memet.
finger, middle, ah-wadgebick.
fire woodrut; koo-rae.

fish poopusraut.
fishing line dis-up.
five ninejeek.
flea, a, kess-yet.
fly, to, mi-a-woth.
fool hod-witch.
fork, a, pa-pa-de-aden.
forefinger onnus.
fourteen; see dabseek.
four dabseek.
fowl ejeedowéshin; susut.
fur peatha.
gaping abenick.
get up amshut; kinnup.
gin, a ("a trap or gin"), jib-e-thun.
girl eemommooset.
glass hadibiet.
gloves obseedeek.
good night beteok.
gooseberry jigganisut.
go out euano.
grass shisth.
groaning chee-a-shit.
grouse; see zosweet.
gun, a, hurreen.
hair drúmmet.
hand memet.
handkerchief of silk ejibidinish.
hatchet now-aut.
head; see keathut.
herring weshemesh.
hiccups mudy-rau.
hoop waine.
husband zatrook.
ice oreru; ozeru.
I have to throw your trap shaub-ab-un-o.
index onnus.
Indian cup shucodimít.
iron; see mowgeenúck.
islands mamasheek.
January cobthun - eesamut.
June wasumaw - eeseek.
July cowasazeek.
kissing she-both.
knee hods-mishit.
kneeling abus-thib-e.
knife; see eewo-in, nine.
laughing who-ísh-me.
leaves mady-u-a.
leg co-ga-de-alla.
lightning koo-rae.
lip coosh.
little finger ọddesamick.
lord bird mammadronitan.
louse cusebee.
lying pis-au-wau.
man buggishamā'n.
make haste is-shu.
money; see *buttons.*
moon deu-is; kuis.
moskito shemabogosthue.
nails cush.
neck tedesheet.
needle tus-mus.
net giggaremanet.
night washeu.
nine yeothoduck.
nineteen; see *nine.*
nose gun, guen.
oakum mush-a-bauth.
oar podibeac.
ochre odemet.
one yaseek.
Oubee; nom. pr. fem.
paper pau-shee.
partridge susut; zosweet.
partridge berries shau-da-me.
pigeon; see *sea pigeon.*
pin tus-mug.
puppy mamoosemich.
rain pedth-ae.
Red Indian beathook.
ring-finger wyabick.
rolling odausoot.
rowing huzza-gan; osarate.
running wothamashet.
scab pig-a-thee.
scalping no-mash-nush.
scissors; see oregreen.
seal, a, mom-au.
sea pigeon bobodísh.

atho-onut *twenty* for dtho-onut, and in some instances has two words for one English term, as in *ankle* moosin, *and* gei-je-bursut; (to) *bite* boshoodik *or* boshwādit; *boat* and *vessel* adothe, *or* odeothyke; and what will be found under *head, man, moon, stockings, sun, teeth, woman, woodpecker.*

This vocabulary is arranged alphabetically after the English terms, which stand *before* their Beothuk equivalents, and contains many terms new to us, which corroborates the supposition previously advanced by me, that the original Cormack vocabulary must have been more extensive.

To insert all the two hundred and twenty-eight terms of this new "recension" of the Cormack collection *in bulk* into the list to be given below, would have the result of increasing the confusion already existing in the wording of the Beothuk terms. Therefore, I have omitted not only those terms which are written *alike* to the terms which stand first in my list of 1885, pp. 415–424, but also those which rest upon an evident error of the copyist, as mamiruateek *houses* for mammateek, berroieh *clouds* for berroick, moocas *elbow* for moocus, etc.

It is probable, that W. E. Cormack made several copies of his vocabulary himself, which differed among each other, or were written in an illegible hand; this would explain many of the "lectiones variæ" which now puzzle the Beothuk student, and cause more trouble to him than it does to edit a Roman or Greek author from the mediæval manuscripts with all their errors and mistakes.

THE CLINCH VOCABULARY.

A vocabulary of Beothuk has just come to light, which appears to be, if not more valuable, at least older than the ones investigated by me heretofore. It contains one hundred and twelve terms of the language, many of them new to us. It was obtained, as stated, by the Rev. John Clinch, a minister of the Church of England, and a man of high education, stationed as parish priest at Trinity, in Trinity Bay, Newfoundland. The original is contained in the "Record Book," preserved in the office of Justice Pinsent, D.C.L., of the Supreme Court at Harbor Grace, and it has been printed in the *Harbor Grace Standard and Conception Bay Advertiser*, of Wednesday, May 2, 1888, some biographic and other notes being added to it in the number of May 12.

Among these the following will give us a clearer insight into the question of authenticity of Clinch's vocabulary. John Clinch was born in Gloucestershire, England, and in early youth studied medicine under a practitioner at Cirencester, where he became a fellow of Dr. Jenner, who discovered the celebrated specific against small-pox. In those times, no law compelled a man to undergo examinations for diplomas; so Clinch migrated to Bonavista, Newfoundland, and established himself there in 1775 as a physician, but in 1783 removed to Trinity. Besides his practice, he conducted services in church, was ordained deacon and priest in London, in 1787, then worked over thirty years at Trinity in his sacred calling,

until his death, which must have occurred about 1827. He has the merit of introducing vaccination upon that island, and there are people living now who were vaccinated by him. He was also appointed to judicial charges.

Simultaneously with Mr. Clinch, a Beothuk Indian stayed in that town, known as John August. Tradition states that he was taken from his mother when a child and brought up by a colonist, Jeffrey G. Street. He then remained in Street's house as a faithful and intelligent servant, and when arrived at manhood was entrusted with the command of a fishing smack manned by whites. Frequently he obtained leave to go into the country, where he probably communicated with his tribe. The parish register of Trinity records his interment there on October 29, 1788.

As there is no other Beothuk Indian known to have resided among white people of Newfoundland at that time, it is generally supposed that Mr. Clinch, who lived there since 1783, obtained his collection from none else but from John August. The selection of words differs greatly from that in Leigh's vocabulary, but the identity of a few terms, which are quite specific, as *hiccups, shaking hands, warming yourself,* induces Mr. Howley to believe that he had Clinch's vocabulary before him. One item in Clinch's list, "Ou-bee : *her own name,*" seems to indicate that it was obtained from a female. Indeed, in 1803, a Beothuk woman was captured, presented to Governor Gambier, and subsequently sent back to her tribe. Mrs. Edith Blake, in her article, "The Beothuks," gives a description of her and of her presence at a social meeting at the Governor's house, at St. John's.

I have obtained a copy of the printed vocabulary through Mr. Howley. It was full of typographic errors, and these were corrected by him with the aid of a copy made of the original at Trinity by Mrs. Edith Blake, who took the greatest pains to secure accuracy. The "Record Book" states that Rev. Clinch obtained the vocabulary in *Governor Waldegraves' time,* and the volume which contains it embodies documents of the year 1800; this date would form an argument against the supposition, that it was obtained from the female captured in 1803. Below I have reproduced all the terms of this vocabulary, as it surpasses all the others in priority, though perhaps not in accuracy. The words are all syllabicated, but none of them shows accentuation marks; I have printed most of them in their *syllabicated* form.

Capt. Robinson has consulted and partly copied the Clinch vocabulary, as will be readily seen by a comparison of the terms in both.

rubbed), and scarcely any on the dorsum of the metacarpal bone of the thumb. The distribution of the hair on the wing membrane is as in *C. brevicauda*.*

The general form of the auricle as in *C. brevicauda*, but is proportionately longer. The outer border is more emarginate. When the auricle is laid on the head, it reaches a point as far as the end of the muzzle. The tragus is obscurely acuminate; the inner border, therefore, not straight, but the apical half abruptly narrowed. The outer border crenulate, rather than pectinate. The basal lobe and the process above it well developed. The nose-leaf is more delicate than in *C. brevicauda*. The height is 7 mm.; the breadth 4½ mm. The lower border is much more distinct than in *C. brevicauda*. The nostrils are rounded, well defined, and not continuous with a concavity on the outer border.† The warts on the mentum are arranged in three obscurely disposed rows, the middle one being the larger, but none of them are elongate. The tail reaches to a point opposite the knee.

Skull. The general proportions of the skull are the same in the two species. The brain case at the procephalon is inflated and the temporal crest does not extend over the inflated part. Hence the impressions for the temporal muscles are not defined on the frontal bone. The upper border of the anterior nasal aperture is on a line with the canine tooth. The distance between the lachrymal ridges is greater than between the lachrymal ridge of one side and the corresponding central incisor. The distance from the last maxillary molar to the posterior limit of the nasal chamber is less than the distance from the point last named to the end of the long endopterygoids. The palatal rugæ are more trenchant, curved and wider apart opposite the premolars, than is the case with *C. brevicauda*.

Teeth. The number of the teeth is the same as in *C. brevicauda*, viz.:

$$\frac{2}{2}-\frac{1}{1}-\frac{2}{2}-\frac{3}{3}\times 2=\frac{16}{16}=32$$

The maxillary central incisors touch their entire lengths.‡ The lateral

* The fur of *C. brevicauda* is described as follows:
Above, moderately long only. The base is plumbeous, the tip brown, and the intermediate part pallid—almost white. Below, the fur is short, plumbeous at basal half, and of the peculiar mouse gray so often seen in Phyllostomidæ. G. E. Dobson (Cat. Chir. Br. Mus., 1878) describes the fur as brown above and beneath. None of the nine specimens examined were so marked. The brown aspect of the animal as seen in spirit is much more apparent than when dried. The nose-leaf is covered with fine short hairs on both sides. The back of the thumb is densely covered with short hair in *C. brevicauda*.

† The nostrils are oval in outline, are not separable from the outline of the nose-leaf above, and are continuous with a concavity (as one speaks of a mouth of a pitcher being concave), on the outer border. The peculiarity just named is best seen by holding the specimen so as to keep the vertex of the head upward, the observer looking downward from the tip to the base of the nose-leaf.

‡ G. E. Dobson (Cat. Chir. Br. Mus., 1878), gives this as a character of *C. brevicauda*. From my examinations, I cannot agree with this writer. The teeth exhibit a Λ-shaped space between the cutting edges.

incisors are very small and are free from both the central incisor and the canine. The first premolar is distinctly caniniform and does not touch either the canine or the second premolar.

The mandibular second premolar does not touch the third premolar. The distance from the anterior border of the canine to the first molar is 3 mm., a distance over ½ mm. greater than that from the anterior border of the canine to the central incisors.

	Measurements.	*mm.*
Head and body (from crown of head to base of tail)		44
Length of arm		25
" forearm		32
First digit	Length of first metacarpal bone	4
	" first phalanx	3
Second digit	Length of second metacarpal bone	26
	" first phalanx	3
Third digit	Length of third metacarpal bone	32
	" first phalanx	16
	" second phalanx	20
	" third phalanx	10
Fourth digit	Length of fourth metacarpal bone	30
	" first phalanx	13
	" second phalanx	11
Fifth digit	Length of fifth metacarpal bone	32
	" first phalanx	11
	" second phalanx	10
Length of head		15
Height of ear		15
" tragus		6
Length of thigh		11
" tibia		13
" foot		10
" interfemoral membrane		15
" tail		8

Costa Rica. Collections of National Museum. Collected by J. C. Zeledon.

The nine specimens of *C. brevicauda,* which formed the basis of my study, were chiefly interesting from the measurements which were made of the peripheral parts. These are arranged in tabular form (p. 22).

TABLE OF MEASUREMENTS OF CAROLLIA BREVICAUDA. — CAROLLIA CASTANEA.

		3997 ♀	3129 ♀	3128 ♀	3231 ♀	3998 ♀	3993 ♀	3230 ♂	3229 ♂	4192 ♂	12,914 ♂
		mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
	Arm*	26	26	26	28	25	25	26	27	25	25
	Forearm†	37	37	39	40	37	38	38	39	35	32
I	Metacarpal	5	5	5	5	4	6	5	5	5	4
I	1st phalanx	4	6	5	5	4	4	5	4½	4	3
II	Metacarpal	24	30	30	27	30	31	31	28	28	26
II	1st phalanx	3½	5	4	4	3	3	5	4	3½	3
III	Metacarpal	34	37	37	36	35		37	36	35	32
III	1st phalanx	13	17	17	17	14	16½	17	15	16	16
III	2d phalanx	21	22	22	21½	20	22	21	18	21	20
III	3d phalanx	11	11	11	11	11	11	10½	11	10	10
IV	Metacarpal	32	36	36	35	34	34	34	34	34	30
IV	1st phalanx	13	13	13	11	13	13	14	12½	13	13
IV	2d phalanx	14	12½	12½	10½	13	12	13	11	12	11
V	Metacarpal	36	37½	37½	35	35	35	36	36½	35	32
V	1st phalanx	11	12	12	12	12	12	12	11	12	11
V	2d phalanx	11	11	11	11	11	12	10½	10	11	10
	Femur	14	14	15	12	13	12½	14	12	12	11
	Tibia	14	14	17	16	15	15	18	18	14	13
	Foot	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	10
	Tail	7½	5	7	6	7½	7½	7	7	13	8
	Head	22	22	22½	24	22	22	23	22½	23	20½
	Auricle‡	12	12	13	13	12	13½	12	12	12	15
	Tragus‖	6	5	6	6½	6	6	6	6	6	6
	Width of 2d digital interspace	6	4	5	5	4½	6	6		5	4
	Width of 3d digital interspace	22	16	20	21	23	21	19	20	20	21
	Width of 4th digital interspace	31	28	32	31	35	35	26	27	28	30

*From top of shoulder to epicondyle.
† From epicondyle to end of radius.
‡ From outer border posteriorly.
‖ Outer border.

With the exception of the foot, which is constantly 11 mm. long, all the measurements are subject to variation—indeed, no two specimens in all respects are alike. This statement is made while making due allowance for the difficulty in taking some of the measurements, as for example those of the thigh and of the membranous expansions. Specimens which had been macerated in weak alcohol were rejected. But among those which were accepted it was not always possible to determine (owing to the contraction of the tissues), the exact extent to which the parts should be extended, so as to represent as far as possible the position of the wings in flight. One of the most interesting measurements is that of the width of the third digital interspace. This space, so small in Pteropidæ, Molossi, and in Noctilio, is wide in Phyllostomidæ, excepting Phyllostoma. Another interesting feature is the extent of the incision on the free margin of the interfemoral membrane. In well-preserved specimens of *C. brevicauda* the incision is conspicuous, while in the type of *C. castanea*, which is also in good condition, the incision is absent. Yet in slightly macerated specimens of *C. brevicauda* the incision disappears, showing that it is a character which is dependent upon tonicity and not on any distinctive structural peculiarities, and cannnot, therefore, have much value. One of the marked ranges of measurements is seen in the length of the tail. The shortest tail is 5 mm. long and the longest 7 mm. The tip of the tail answered in three specimens to the middle of the femur, in four to the junction of the middle with the lower third, and in two lack one-fifth only in being as long as the femur. In none, therefore, was the tail as long as in the single example of *C. castanea*.

The length of the thigh varies from 12 mm. to 15 mm. Hence the relative lengths of these quantities will be also variable, especially so since even in the same individual the length of the tail does not tautogenize* with the length of the femur. The length of the tibia—a character of value in Cheiroptera—varies from 14 mm. to 18 mm.

The length of the forearm, perhaps the most important single measurement which can be taken, varies from 35 mm. to 40 mm.

The following includes the variations of the manus and their range:

		mm.		*mm.*		*mm.*
First metacarpal	from	4	to	6	Range	2
Second "	"	24	"	35	"	9
Third "	"	33	"	37	"	4
Fourth "	"	32	"	36	"	4
Fifth "	"	35	"	37½	"	2½
First phalanx first digit	"	4	"	6	"	2
†First " second "	"	3	"	6	"	3
First " third "	"	13	"	17	"	4

* Tautogeneity—a word introduced by Prof. Rolleston as a more correct term in this connection than corelation.

† An apparent anomaly exists on the left side of specimen No. 3993. There are *two* phalanges to the second digit.

		mm.	mm.	mm.
First phalanx fourth digit........	from	11	to 14	Range 3
First " fifth "...........	"	10	" 12	" 2
Second " third "...........	"	20	" 21½	" 1½
Second " fourth "...........	"	10½	" 14	" 4½
Second " fifth "...........	"	10	" 12	" 2
Third " third "...........	"	10	" 11	" 1

The length of the head appears to be subject to very slight variation, namely, from 22 mm. to 23 mm. That of the ear, from 12 mm. to 13½ mm., a slight difference and yet one which might disturb the novice in attempting to identify the species, since the proportion between the height of the ear and the length of the muzzle is so often used in descriptions of bats. In *Carollia* these quantities are not fixed. The height of the auricle is variable, but the length of the muzzle is constant. No estimate of relations of measurements between them can be undertaken.

The tragus varies in height from 5 mm. to 6 mm. It presents different degrees of thickness along the median border. As a rule, very thick, this border may be thin and membranous. The processes on the outer border may be two or five, those toward the apex of the tragus tending to merge in one another. This tendency appears to be most marked in males.

The size of the nose-leaf is constant, being 10 mm. high and 6 mm. broad. The lower border shows striking peculiarities in some specimens.

Three of the males exhibited warts arranged in one or two rows across the upper lip on the line occupied in *Artibeus*, *Phyllostoma*, etc., with a well-defined ridge or border. This variation is one of generic rather than specific value. At least it does not indicate any disposition to reversion to *C. castanea*, since in this species no warts are seen, the intervals between the margins of membrane at the side of the base of the nose-leaf simply being smaller than usual, and giving to the eye the appearance of extending directly across the lip. I know of no genus in which this variation of the nose-leaf of *Carollia brevicauda* is a constant character.

In *C. brevicauda*, the warts in the second row on the mentum are elongate in all the nine examples, except one in which they are rounded and do not differ from those of the first row. This arrangement resembles that seen in *C. castanea*.

It is probable that the two outermost rows of warts in *C. brevicauda* coalesce to form the elongate wart, which, as a rule, exists.

In reviewing the measurements of *C. castanea*, when placed in tabular form with those of *C. brevicauda*, it is seen that in the species first named that many of the measurements are the same ; that is to say, in some one of the examples of *C. brevicauda* the measurement of a given part will be found to be the same as in *C. castanea*. Thus the arm is of the same length in three specimens of *C. brevicauda*. The length of the bones of the digits find their complements in *C. brevicauda*, excepting the metacarpals of the fourth and fifth digits, which are shorter than in any example

of that species. The metacarpal of the first digit is of the same length in one specimen of *C. brevicauda*, while the first phalanx is shorter than in any. The head is shorter while the ear is longer. The tragus remains the same in the two species. The thigh and the leg are both shorter in *C. castanea*, while the tail is absolutely longer by 1 mm.

The proportion of the widths of the second, third and fourth interdigital spaces is shown to be subject to variation. Specimens numbered 3129, 3231, 3128, 3230, 3229, and 4192 are of those in the best condition ; and it is seen that the differences are less than in the remaining specimens. But after all possible sources of error are eliminated, it will be seen that in three only of *C. brevicauda* (the males, Nos. 3230, 3229, 4192—and thus suggestive of sexual distinction) is the difference between the widths of the second and third spaces less than 10 mm., while in the single example of *C. castanea* (also a male), the difference amounts to but 9 mm.

In this connection I may allude to the value which attaches to the last-named measurements in the study of the Cheiroptera.

If a specimen of a bat, which is preserved in spirit, is so held in the hand that the wing is supported in the position of flight, it will be seen that the intervals between the metacarpal bones hold a definite relation to each other.

The width of the spaces between the metacarpals, now being recorded (the measurements are taken at their widest parts), it will be seen that the second interspace is the narrowest and the fourth the widest. In this way a formula may be stated. It is proper to add the length of the fore-arm to the formula, since this measurement is one of relative constancy and is of importance in framing the diagnosis of the species.

Examination of the table herewith presented exhibits at a glance the marked contrasts which obtain in the Phyllostomidæ in the composition of this formula.

It is especially interesting to note the difference which exists between the widths of the second and the third interspaces. It will be observed that no two formulæ are alike, nor is any fixed ratio preserved between the formulæ of genera which are allied. Nevertheless the measurements are sufficiently distinctive to warrant the recommendation that they be taken in all discriminating studies, not only of the Phyllostomidæ, but of the entire order.

Formulæ of the Widths of Second, Third and Fourth Interspaces in the Genera of Phyllostomidæ.

	II	III	IV	Forearm.	Differ'e bet. III & IV
	mm.	*mm.*	*mm.*	*mm.*	*mm.*
Lophostoma	7	17	18	49	1
Schizostoma	3	16	21	32	5
Macrotus	2	15	22	44	7
Desmodus.........	2	21	37	53	10
Vampyrops	3	17	27	36	10

	II	III	IV	Forearm.	Differ'e bet. III & IV
	mm.	*mm.*	*mm.*	*mm.*	*mm.*
Sturnira	3	21	31	38	10
Chilonycteris	1½	15	17	40	12
Carollia	5	20	32	26	9–12
Vampyrus	16	41	53	105	12
Lonchoglossa	3	19	32	33	12
Monophyllus	3	17	34	32	14
Artibeus	4	21	39	51	18
Brachyphylla	3	25	43	64	18
Mormoops	3	16	35	50	19
Phyllostoma	4	29	62	81	45

The study of measurements has given valuable results in the study of the human cranium and has enabled anatomists to come to definite conclusions respecting the validity of characters even when derived from scanty and imperfect material.

No reason can be urged why similar methods may not prove acceptable in describing a new species of mammal.

Extended observations on a number of examples of allied species enhance the value of those upon which it is proposed to announce a new one.

The following table includes the formulæ in families other than the Phyllostomidæ:

Rhynchonycteris	5	16	25	40	9
Cynopterus marginatus	10	18	27	58	9
Vespertilio murinus	2	11	31	59	10
Epomophorus franqueti	13	21	39	83	11
Rhinopoma	3	13	30	64	17
Atalapha	½	9	26	37	15
Molossus rufus	½	5	35	46	30
Noctilio	2	13	58	83	45
Pteropus edwardsii	18	17	69	145	52

Stated Meeting, January 3, 1890.

Present, 10 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters acknowledging election to membership from Mr. A. Sydney Biddle and Dr. George Friebis, Philadelphia; Dr. C. C. Abbott, Trenton, N. J.; Rt. Rev. John J. Keane and Hon.

Fernando Cruz, Washington, D. C.; Hon. J. M. Le Moine, Quebec, Canada.

The San Francisco Public Library was, on motion, placed on exchange list to receive Proceedings and Transactions.

The Brooklyn Entomological Society communicated a change of address to No. 200 Washington street, Brooklyn.

The decease of members was announced as follows:

Dr. Charles A. Ashburner, Pittsburgh, Pa. (b. February 9, 1854; d. December 24, 1889).

Dr. James H. Hutchinson, Philadelphia (b. 1834; d. December 27, 1889).

Hon. George H. Boker, Philadelphia (b. October 6, 1823; d. January 2, 1890).

On motion, the President was authorized, at his discretion, to appoint suitable persons to prepare the usual obituary notices.

The President reported that he had appointed Hon. Richard Vaux to prepare the obituary notice of the late Franklin B. Gowen, and the appointment of Hon. James B. Angell to prepare the obituary notice of the late Henry S. Frieze, and that the same had been accepted.

The clerks and judges reported that at the annual election for officers and council, held this afternoon, the following gentlemen had been duly chosen:

President.

Frederick Fraley.

Vice-Presidents.

E. Otis Kendall, W. S. W. Ruschenberger, J. P. Lesley.

Secretaries.

George F. Barker, Daniel G. Brinton, Henry Phillips, Jr., George H. Horn.

Counselors (for three years).

Daniel R. Goodwin, William A. Ingham, Thomas H. Dudley, Robert Patterson.

Curators.

John R. Baker, Patterson DuBois, J. Cheston Morris.

Treasurer.

J. Sergeant Price.

Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., was nominated for Librarian, and the nominations were closed.

Dr. A. S. Gatschet presented through the Secretaries a "Third Article on the Beothuk Indians."

Prof. Ryder presented a paper on "The Eye, the Ocular Muscles, and the Lachrymal Glands of the Shrew-mole."

Pending nominations Nos. 1203, 1204 and 1205, and new nominations Nos. 1206 and 1207 were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, January 17, 1890.

Present, 20 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Dr. George Friebis, a lately elected member, was presented to the Chair, and took his seat.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

A letter from Dr. Antonio Peñafiel (Mexico), announcing that his address would be, for some time to come, Berlin, Prussia (Kupfergraben 4).

Accessions to the Library were announced from the Académie des Sciences, Cracow, Austria; Physiologische Gesellschaft, Berlin; Gartenbauverein, Darmstadt; Deutsche Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, Ethnologie, etc., Munich Bavaria; Académie Royale de Belgique, Bruxelles; Senator Pietro Ellero, Bologna, Italy; Biblioteca N. C., Firenze; R. Accademia dei Lincei, Rome; Rédaction "Cosmos," Sociétés de l'Enseignement, Geographie, Ethnographie, Ecole des

Mines, Paris; Geological, Astronomical, Meteorological, Geographical Societies, Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, "Nature," London; Natural History Society of Northumberland, Durham and Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Philosophical Society, Glasgow; Geological and Natural History Survey of Canada, Montreal; Canadian Institute, Toronto; American Academy of Arts and Sciences, Society of Natural History, Boston; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge; Brown University, Providence, R. I.; Yale University, "American Journal of Science," New Haven, Conn.; Entomological Society, Prof. W. Le Conte Stevens, Brooklyn; Cornell University, Ithaca; New York Academy of Sciences, American Chemical Society, New York Historical Society, Rev. John Hall, D.D., New York; College of Pharmacy, Franklin Institute, Editors of the "Medical and Surgical Reporter" and the "Medical News," Prof. H. D. Gregory, LL.D., Philadelphia; U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis; Maryland Institute, Baltimore; U. S. Engineer Office, Department of the Interior and of State, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Fish Commission, Mr. Lester F. Ward, Col. Garrick Mallery, Washington, D. C.

Photographs were received from Il Marchese de Gregorio Palermo, and Dr. R. H. Alison, Ardmore, Pa.

The deaths of the following members were announced:

J. H. C. Coffin, U. S. N., January 8, 1890, Washington, D.C. æt. 75.

William D. Kelley, M. C. (of Philadelphia), at Washington, D. C., January 9, 1890 (b. April 12, 1814).

The stated business of the meeting was then taken up, and Henry Phillips, Jr., was unanimously reëlected Librarian for the ensuing year.

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint at his leisure the Standing Committees of the Society, which he subsequently appointed as follows:

Finance.

William B. Rogers, Philip C. Garrett, C. S. Wurts.

Publication.

Daniel G. Brinton, George H. Horn, Samuel Wagner,
Patterson DuBois, Horace Jayne.

Michaux Legacy.

Thomas Meehan, J. Sergeant Price, Aubrey H. Smith,
William M. Tilghman, Isaac Burk.

Hall.

J. Sergeant Price, William A. Ingham, Charles A. Oliver.

Library.

Edwin J. Houston, William V. McKean, Wm. John Potts,
Jesse Y. Burk, William H. Greene.

Henry M. Phillips' Prize Essay Fund.

Richard Vaux, Henry Phillips, Jr., William V. McKean,
Furman Sheppard, Joseph C. Fraley,

and

The President of the Society, } *ex officio.*
The Treasurer of the Society, }

Dr. Harrison Allen made an oral communication on "The Variations of the Forms of Human Teeth."

He stated that monocuspidate teeth are those which first appear in any given series, and that the bicuspidate and the multicuspidate forms are complications due to additions to the monocuspidate. He claimed that the quadritubercular human molar resolves itself into two pairs of adjoined cusps which are arranged endo-ectally, and not as he at one time stated* into a tritubercular form to which is appended a rudimental fourth cusp. He also believed that teeth when degenerated do not of necessity descend along the lines of ascent. As a rule they infrequently do so. In his opinion, degenerated teeth (and these were illustrated from the orders of Cheiroptera, Rodentia, and Primates) are all essentially alike, inasmuch as they exhibit losses of characteristic details, while retaining the lateral thickenings and contour lines. Some of these may be mimetic of the true tritubercular molar. It is necessary to remember, that forms of teeth when passing into degeneration are in reality expressions of teratological phenomena and have little or no taxonomic value.

* "Dental Cosmos," December, 1874.

Pending nominations 1203, 1204, 1205, 1206, 1207 and new nomination 1208 were read.

Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., presented some statistics relating to the Society.

Dr. Oliver offered the following preamble and resolution:

Whereas, It is both honorable and just that we, the present representatives of the American Philosophical Society, should show our affection and regard for our illustrious founder and first President, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who died on the 17th day of April, 1790, be it,

Resolved, That we commemorate his life, his wisdom, his labors, and his achievements by proper and fitting ceremonies becoming such an occasion, on the 17th day of April, 1890; the form of the commemoration to be referred to a Special Committee of five members, to be appointed by the President, who shall be empowered to take all necessary action.

Which, after discussion, was adopted.

The President subsequently appointed as such Committee, Messrs. Charles A. Oliver, Henry Phillips, Jr., Arthur Biddle William John Potts and William H. Greene.

Dr. Morris made some remarks on the desirability of better accommodations for the possessions of the Society. On motion of Mr. Dudley it was

Resolved, That the President appoint a Committee of five members to consider the whole subject, and to ascertain if the Society can obtain additional space in the vicinity of its Hall, and that the President should also be a member of the Committee.

The President subsequently appointed as such Committee, Messrs. J. Cheston Morris, Thomas H. Dudley, J. Sergeant Price, Richard Vaux and William P. Tatham.

A communication from the Chairman of the Committee on the Michaux Legacy, in reference to an appropriation of $150 towards the expenses of a scientific expedition about to proceed to Mexico, was referred to the Committee to report upon at the next meeting.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, February 7, 1890.

Present, 8 members.

Prof. EDWIN J. HOUSTON in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters from Sir George G. Stokes, F.R.S., London, and Dr. Friederich S. Krauss, Vienna, accepting membership in the Society.

A letter from the Physikalisch-Oekonomische Gesellschaft zu Kœnigsberg in Preussen, announcing the approaching Centennial Anniversary of its formation (February 22, 1890).

An invitation from Columbia College, New York city, N. Y., to be present by delegate at the inauguration of Seth Low as President, on February 3, 1890.

Letters of envoy were received from the K. Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Akademie, Halle a. S.; Meteorological Office, London.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Royal Society of Victoria, Melbourne (129); Naturwissenschaftlicher Verein des Regierungs-Bezirks, Frankfurt a. O. (129); K. Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Akademie, Halle a. S. (129); Prof. J. Victor Carus, Leipzig (127, 128); Société des Sciences Physiques et Naturelles, Bordeaux (129); Sir Monier Monier-Williams, London (128, 129); Hon. J. M. LeMoine, Quebec (129, 130); Nova Scotian Institute of Natural Science, Halifax (96–130, Catalogue, etc.); Anthropological Society, Washington, D. C. (125, 126, 127, 128); Prof. James B. Angell, Ann Arbor (129); Geological Survey of Missouri, Jefferson City (129, 130, Catalogue, etc.).

Letters of acknowledgment (130) were received from the Geological and Natural History Survey, Ottawa, Canada; University of Toronto, Canadian Institute, Toronto; Maine Historical Society, Portland Society of Natural History, Portland, Me.; Northern Academy of Arts and Sciences, Prof.

C. H. Hitchcock, Hanover, N. H.; Mr. John G. Whittier, Amesbury, Mass.; Boston Athenæum, State Library of Massachusetts, American Statistical Association, Boston Society of Natural History, Massachusetts Historical Society, Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, Boston; Harvard College Library, Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Profs. Alexander Agassiz, Joseph Lovering, Robert N. Toppan, Cambridge, Mass.; Mr. James B. Francis, Lowell, Mass.; Free Public Library, New Bedford; Dr. Pliny Earle, Northampton; Essex Institute, Salem; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester; Rhode Island Historical Society, Prof. Thomas Chase, Providence; Connecticut Historical Society, Hartford, Conn.; New Haven Colony Historical Society, Profs. H. A. Newton, W. D. Whitney, New Haven, Conn.; Profs. James Hall, Edward North, C. H. F. Peters, Clinton, N. Y.; New York Hospital, Astor Library, Dr. Daniel Draper, New York State Library, New York Historical Society, Columbia College Library, Prof. Joel A. Allen, Messrs. J. Douglas, R. W. Raymond, Dr. J. J. Stevenson, New York; Vassar Brothers' Institute, Poughkeepsie; Oneida Historical Society, Utica; U. S. Military Academy, West Point; Mr. William John Potts, Camden; New Jersey Historical Society, Newark; Prof. C. F. Brackett, Princeton; Dr. Charles B. Dudley, Altoona, Pa.; Academy of Natural Science, College of Physicians, Wagner Free Institute, Pennsylvania Hospital, Numismatic and Antiquarian Society, Messrs. Harrison Allen, John Ashhurst, Richard L. Ashhurst, R. Meade Bache, Cadwalader Biddle, George D. Boardman, W. G. A. Bonwill, Arthur E. Brown, Samuel Castner, Jr., Henry C. Chapman, C. H. Clark, Thomas M. Cleemann, E. D. Cope, Samuel Dickson, Patterson du Bois, Persifor Frazer, F. A. Genth, Jr., Daniel R. Goodwin, William H. Greene, H. V. Hilprecht, E. J. Houston, Francis Jordan, Jr., E. Otis Kendall, Joseph Leidy, Francis W. Lewis, Morris Longstreth, E. Y. McCauley, F. A. Mühlenberg, Isaac Norris, Charles A. Oliver, C. Stuart Patterson, C. N. Peirce, William Pepper, Henry Phillips, Jr., Franklin Platt, Theodore D. Rand, George B. Roberts, W. S. W. Ruschen-

berger, Lewis A. Scott, Aubrey H. Smith, Albert H. Smyth, George Stuart, William P. Tatham, William Thomson, H. Clay Trumbull, David K. Tuttle, William H. Wahl, Ellis Yarnall, Mrs. Helen Abbott Michael, Philadelphia; Dr. Robert H. Alison, Ardmore; Prof. E. B. Wilson, Bryn Mawr; Prof. Lyman B. Hall, Haverford; Mr. Philip C. Garrett, Logan, Phila.; Mr. J. Vaughan Merrick, Roxborough; Mr. Burnet Landreth, Bristol; Mr. Eckley B. Coxe, Drifton; Dr. Traill Green, Profs. James W. Moore, Thomas C. Porter, Easton; Linnean Scientific and Historical Society of Lancaster, Pa.; Mr. Peter F. Rothermel, Linfield; Mr. John F. Carll, Pleasantville; Mr. Peter W. Sheafer, Pottsville; Mr. M. Fisher Longstreth, Sharon Hill, Pa.; Philosophical Society, Mr. Philip P. Sharpless, West Chester; State Library of Pennsylvania; Mr. Andrew S. McCreath, Harrisburg; Naval Institute, Annapolis, Md.; Maryland Institute, Baltimore; Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, Anthropological Society, U. S. Naval Observatory, Smithsonian Institution, Messrs. S. F. Emmons, Albert S. Gatschet, Thomas J. Lee, Garrick Mallery, Charles A. Schott, William B. Taylor, Lester F. Ward, Washington, D. C.; Virginia Historical Society, Richmond; Prof. John W. Mallet, University of Virginia; Prof. Lyon G. Tyler, Williamsburg, Va.; Elliott Society of Science and Art, Charleston, S. C.; Georgia Historical Society, Savannah; University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa; Prof. E. W. Claypole, Akron, O.; Denison University, Granville, O.; Society of Natural History, Cincinnati Observatory, Hon. J. D. Cox, Prof. James M. Hart, Cincinnati; Rev. Henry S. Osborn, Oxford, O.; Dr. Robert Peter, Lexington, Ky.; Athenæum, Columbia, Tenn.; St. Louis Academy of Science; Profs. James B. Angell, Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor; Gen. William F. Reynolds, Col. William Ludlow, Detroit; Prof. John C. Branner, Little Rock, Ark.; Davenport Academy of Natural Sciences; Iowa University Library, Iowa City; Kansas State Historical Society, Washburn College, Topeka, Kans.; Prof. John L. Campbell, Crawfordsville, Ind.; Chicago Historical Society, Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill.; State Historical

Society of Wisconsin, Madison; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; Prof. Joseph Le Conte, Berkeley, Cal.; Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, Riverside, Cal.

Accessions to the Library were announced from the K. Böhmische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Prag; K. K. Geologische Reichsanstalt, K. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Vienna, Austria; Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, etc., Deutsche Geologische Gesellschaft, Gesellschaft für Erdkunde, Messrs. Friedländer & Son, Berlin; Senckenbergische Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt a. M.; Verein für Erdkunde, K. Leopoldina Carolina Akademie, Halle a. S.; Sociedade de Geografia, Lisbon; Meteorological Council, Society of Arts, Prof. B. Loewenberg, London; Trustees of Prof. James Henry, Dublin; Nova Scotian Institute of Natural Science, Halifax; Natural History Society, Montreal; Theological Seminary, Andover; American Statistical Association, Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, Boston; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Prof. Samuel D. Scudder, Cambridge, Mass.; Essex Institute, Salem; Editor of "The Traveller's Record," Hartford; Meteorological Observatory, American Institute of Electrical Engineers, New York; Mr. William John Potts, Camden, N. J.; American Pharmaceutical Association, Wagner Free Institute, Editor of "The Naturalist's Leisure Hour," Daniel G. Brinton, I. Minis Hays, Henry Phillips, Jr., Philadelphia; Pennsylvania Geological Survey, Harrisburg; Prof. Ira Remsen, Baltimore; Treasury Department, Smithsonian Institution, Department of the Interior, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Hydrographic Office, Anthropological Society, Washington, D. C.; Charles C. Jones, Jr., Augusta, Ga.; State Board of Health, Nashville, Tenn.; Public Library of Cincinnati; State Historical Society, Iowa City, Ia.; Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, etc., Madison; Washburn College Laboratory of Natural History, Topeka, Kans.; Los Angelos Public Library; University of California, Sacramento; Observatorio Meteorologico-Magnetico Central, Observatorio Astronomico Nacional de Tacubaya, Sociedad Cientifica "Antonio Alzate," Mexico; Museo

Michoacano, Morelia, Mexico; Deutsche Wissenschaftliche Verein, Santiago, Chili.

The death of Gustav Adolph Hirn, Colmar, Alsace, January 14, 1890, æt. 75, was announced.

Dr. Daniel G. Brinton presented a paper on "Etruscan and Libyan Names."

Prof. Houston made a communication on "Muscular Contractions following Death by Electricity."

Pending nominations Nos. 1203, 1204, 1205, 1206, 1207, 1208 were read.

On motion, the Society subscribed to "American Notes and Queries," and ordered the purchase of the three previous volumes.

Dr. Oliver reported the following preamble and resolutions, which were adopted, and the same committee continued and requested to make all the arrangements necessary to carry out the same:

The Committee to which was referred the following preamble and resolution: "Deeming it both honorable and just that we, the present representatives of American Philosophical Society, should show our affection and regard for our illustrious Founder and First President, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who died on the 17th day of April, 1790, be it resolved that we commemorate his life, his wisdom, his labors and his achievements by proper and fitting ceremonies becoming such an occasion, on the 17th day of April, 1890; the form of the commemoration to be referred to a special committee of five members, who shall be empowered to take all necessary action," presented by Dr. Oliver at the meeting of the Society on the 17th of January, 1890, begs respectfully to submit the following report:

Resolved, That we commemorate in a becoming manner the approaching Centennial Anniversary of the death of Benjamin Franklin.

Resolved, That a series of short addresses upon his life, character and work be delivered before the Society upon this occasion.

The Committee on the Michaux Legacy reported in favor of an appropriation of $150 to assist the expedition of Prof. Heilprin to investigate the forest growths of Mexico and Yucatan; and on motion the amount was granted for the purpose.

The Finance Committee offered the following resolution which was adopted:

Resolved, That J. Sergeant Price, Treasurer, be and he is hereby authorized to sell and transfer three thousand dollars of the loans of the City of Philadelphia now standing in the name of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

On Muscular Contractions Following Death by Electricity.

By Prof. Edwin J. Houston.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, February 7, 1890.)

Accurate data are wanting as to whether death resulting from accidental contact with electric conductors conveying the powerful currents employed in systems of electric lighting or power distribution is, or is not, practically instantaneous. Certain facts, however, are known which show that when the nature of the contacts is such that the discharge passes through the respiratory, the cardiac or the brain centres, that true physiological death, as evidenced by the complete failure of these centres to perform their normal functions, and their inability to afterwards perform these functions, is practically instantaneous.

In cases of death from a lightning bolt, for example, instances are on record where death has been so nearly instantaneous that the bodies have remained so nearly in the positions occupied during life that passers-by have failed to recognize the presence of death.

On the regaining of consciousness lost by a lightning discharge or a contact with an electric conductor, the subject as a rule has no memory of pain or suffering, and in many instances is even ignorant of the cause of the accident.

A fact, however, which appears to disprove that practically instantaneous physiological death follows a powerful electric discharge, should be alluded to. In some instances, it has been observed that the body of the person receiving the discharge showed prolonged convulsive muscular contractions and contortions. The question thus arises, Do such muscular movements necessarily prove actual suffering on the part of the subject? Do they even necessarily prove the existence of life while they are taking place? While, of course, the answer to this question must necessarily be to a certain extent uncertain, the following considerations are offered to show that in all probability such muscular contractions follow physiological death, and are, therefore, unattended by consciousness or suffering.

Two general cases of contact resulting in death may occur, viz.:

1. A momentary contact, where the discharge is only temporary, as in the case of the lightning discharge, or the case of a person falling against the wires and remaining in contact therewith but a few seconds or fractions of a second.

2. A prolonged contact where the current continues to pass through the body for some time after death.

In cases of death by the first class of contacts, no convulsive movements occur. Death results from physiological shock, or possibly from changes in the nervous or muscular tissues.

In the second class of contacts, death in many cases probably occurs practically instantaneously. The question then arises, How can the muscular contractions be explained?

The classic experiments of Galvani with the excised legs of recently killed frogs prove conclusively that the passage of an electric current causes convulsive muscular movements. The same phenomena, too, have been observed in the human subject, as numerous experiments with the bodies of criminals shortly after their execution have shown.

It would seem, therefore, probable, to say the least, that when the electric current continues to pass through the body of the subject after physiological death has occurred, such convulsive muscular movements may occur, and that, therefore, their existence do not prove suffering.

When a powerful current traverses the body, tetanus occurs, and muscular movements in such parts cease. The nerve loses its sensibility, and, if the current is too strong, changes occur in its structure or composition, either as a result of polarization, or electrolysis, or otherwise, which prevent it from being further affected by the electric discharge. Since such changes presumably occur in cases of death by electric discharges, it would appear that muscular contractions would therefore be impossible after death. A brief consideration of the manner in which an electric current traverses the human body will show that such a conclusion is unwarranted.

When the electrodes of any source are applied to any two parts of the human body, a current passes through the body from the positive to the negative electrode. The density of current that passes, or the current strength per unit of area of cross-section, is different at different parts of the body. Those portions that lie in the paths of least resistance, which, in general, are situated in paths of least distance between the electrodes, receive the denser and more powerful current, while those lying in paths of greater resistance, receive weaker currents. In other words, in the passage of the electric current through the human body, a diffusion of the current occurs.

While, therefore, the nerves and muscles lying in the direct path of a fatal discharge may be almost instantly deprived of their sensibility by the passage of the powerful and fatal discharge through them, the nerves and muscles which lie in the paths of less powerful currents may still retain their power of electric excitation.

It is therefore probable, that in cases of prolonged fatal contact with electric conductors, the ensuing convulsive muscular contractions do not of necessity prove suffering.

I offer these views with some diffidence from the standpoint of an electrician rather than that of a physiologist.

On Etruscan and Libyan Names. A Comparative Study.

By Daniel G. Brinton, M.D.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, February 7, 1890.*)

§ 1. *Introductory. Libyan Epigraphy.*

In October last (1889) I laid before this Society a series of considerations drawn from the physical traits of the Etruscans, their customs, arts and language, going to show that they were an offshoot or colony of the Libyans or Numidians of North Africa—that stock now represented by the Kabyles of Algeria, the Rifians of Morocco, the Touaregs of the Great Desert and the other so-called Berber tribes.

So far as I was aware, this opinion had never been advanced before, although it would seem a natural and obvious one. Nor have I yet found that any writer had clearly stated it previously; though I have discovered that occasional earlier observers have been struck with some of the resemblances which so impressed me, and I am glad to add the weight of their testimony to my own. Thus, M. Louis Rinn, Vice-President of the Historical Society of Algiers, after alluding to what he considers a point of resemblance between the Berber and the Etruscan language, adds, "A comparative study of these two peoples would certainly bring into prominence other similarities, yet more remarkable, in their customs, in the forms and designs of their potteries and in their tongues."* M. Rinn quotes the old traveler, Dr. T. Shaw, as suggesting one or more similarities in Kabyle and Etruscan place-names, but he gives no exact references, and a search through Shaw's *Travels* has not enabled me to find the passages.

In the present article, I shall carry out to a limited extent a comparison between the proper names preserved in the oldest Libyan monuments and a series of similar names believed to be genuine Etruscan. I am aware that this is not the way to study the relationship of languages *à fond;* but the material is not obtainable in this country to do more, and if it were, I have not that familiarity

* *Les Origines Berbères. Études Linguistiques et Ethnologiques*, p. 196 (Alger., 1889). I regret that I cannot speak favorably of this laborious production; but its author is fantastical rather than scientific in most of his researches. The similarity referred to is that of the geographical name *Taderta* which I mention hereafter.

with the Punic and Berber dialects with which one should be equipped to approach the question from that more difficult side.

For the Numidian or Libyan epigraphy I have depended upon the *Collection* of General Faidherbe,* and the admirable *Essay* of Prof. Halévy.† Even with these materials I believe more could be accomplished than I have attempted, and the most that I hope from this and my former paper is to enlist the attention of Etruscologists to the possible derivation of the nation from the Libyan stock. These Libyan or Numidian inscriptions, to be sure, date from a long time after the Etruscans had founded their cities in Italy. The oldest of them are probably not beyond 200 B.C., and then nearly a thousand years had elapsed since the formation of the Etruscan commonwealth. We must not therefore expect frequent identities, especially as the Etruscans notoriously borrowed largely the names and terms of their various neighbors. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the Berber is a group of dialects singularly tenacious of its traits, both grammatic and lexicographic. To this day, its tribes are mutually intelligible, from the western boundaries of Egypt to the Atlantic coast, and from the Mediterranean to the Soudan. Therefore it is not incongruous to attempt the explanation of an Etruscan name (assuming that it is of Libyan origin) by the modern Kabyle or Touareg.

A preliminary question of interest is that of the

§ 2. *Etruscan Invasions of Egypt.*

This subject has been brought to the attention of Egyptologists by the supposed references to the Etruscans in the ancient inscriptions, and to Italian archæologists by the evident Egyptian inspiration in some of the Etruscan art remains. I shall sum up briefly the main points of the question.

From the earliest times the movement of the Libyan tribes toward the east is recorded in the annals of the Egyptian monarchy. In the third dynasty—according to the chronology of Mariette some 4200 years B. C.—the incursions of the Temhu (the Touaregs ?) are mentioned. In the eighteenth dynasty (1703–1462 B.C.) the mother of Amenhotep IV. is represented as a blonde with blue

* *Collection Complete des Inscriptions Numidiques (Libyques).* Par le General Faidherbe (Paris, 1870).

† *Études Berbères. Essai d'Epigraphie Libyque.* Par J. Halévy (Paris, 1875).

eyes, and bore the name, at once Libyan and Etruscan, of "Taia." She was probably a Libyan by birth.*

The most important general migration of the Libyan tribes seems to have taken place about 1300 years B.C. At that time, as we are informed by an inscription of Meneptah II. on the wall of the great temple of Ammon at Api, the king of the land of *Libu*, by name Mar-ajui, a son of Did, led a great army composed of his own troops and mercenaries from other nations into Egypt, entering near the city of Prcsopis. He was defeated with heavy loss, and many thousands of his soldiery were slain.† Among his allies were the "Tursha," who are considered by some Egyptologists to have been the nation called in classic writings, *Turseni* or *Tyrrheni*, *i.e.*, the Etruscans. This identification is rejected by Dr. Brugsch Bey, who ventures the yet wilder theory that they were *Taurians*. Halévy, on the other hand, is inclined to see in this and the other names given in the list of allies merely various Libyan tribes, neighbors of the Lebu;‡ and this is quite probable when we consider the impracticability of large bodies of soldiery being transported across the Mediterranean in that early age. It is possible, therefore, that the "Tursha" were the "Turseni," and that in consequence of this defeat they left their native land and founded the Etruscan colonies on the west coast of Italy—which were commenced about that time.

Dr. Deecke has already pointed out the probability that the *Tuirsa* who attacked Egypt by sea in the time of Ramses III (twentieth dynasty, 980–810 B.C.) were the Turseni or Etruscans. They are represented on the paintings with pointed beards and helmets of Etruscan form.§ The very early signs of Egyptian culture visible in ancient Etruria, on which Deecke lays stress, may be explained by the proximity of the Libyo-Etruscans—the *Tuirsa*—to the Nile valley before they founded their Italian colonies. It is quite sure that the main body of the army of Mar-ajui was composed of the blonde type of the Berbers, as the Egyptian name applied to them on the monuments is *thuheni*, "the light-colored or fair-complexioned people."

* On the presumably feminine termination in Etruscan *ala*, see Deecke in Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 475.

† Dr. Brugsch Bey, *History of Egypt*, Vol. ii, p. 129.

‡ *Essai d'Epigraphie Libyque*, p. 170.

§ See his note in Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Band i, s. 70.

§ 3. *The Libyan Alphabet.*

The ancient Libyan or Numidian alphabet, preserved in the *tifinagh* and *tiddebakin* of the Touaregs, was composed of twenty-three letters, five of which served both as vowels and consonants. As in the Etruscan alphabet, all letters could act as either initial or terminal sounds. Two letters are in the Libyan which do not appear in the Etruscan—*b* and *o*. It is a notable coincidence, however, that not only was the former sound usually rendered by the ancient Roman writers by an *f*,* but it is absent or rare in the Ghdames, Rif, Bougie and Mzab dialects of modern Berber.† Evidently the Etruscan in its omission of this phonetic element is brought into closer relations to a large part of the Libyan speech.

Diphthongs, double consonants, guttural and sibilant sounds are of frequent recurrence in Libyan as they were in Etruscan, the former trait being a similarity which separates both from pure Semitic tongues.‡

The most frequent permutations of the Libyan letters, both in the ancient and modern dialects, are as follows:

b into *f*.
k into *x* (guttural), or *ch*.
l into *d*, or *r*.
s into *z*, or *ch*, or *sh*.
t into *d*, or *dj*, or *dh*.
tch into *k*.
ts into *sh*.
th (θ) into *t*.

§ 4. *Names of Divinities.*

The religion both of the Libyans and Etruscans resembled that of most of their neighbors in being a marked polytheism. It is said that more than two hundred Etruscan divinities have been discriminated;§ but I do not find the names of anything like this number. Otfried Müller and Dr. Deecke give about fifty, of which

* "Le changement de *b* et *f* est très fréquent dans les dialectes berbers." Halévy, *Essai*, p. 21. "Le *b* libyque est souvent transcrit par *f* en latin." *Ibid.*, p. 156.

† Basset, *Manuel de langue Kabyle*, p. 6.

‡ Louis Rinn, *Les Origines Berberes*, p. 59.

§ Richard Burton, *Etruscan Bologna*, p. 192.

some are probably Italian or Greek. From among those apparently really Etruscan, I select for comparison the following:

Apulu, or *Aplu*, was the Etruscan god whose fane was upon Mt. Soracte, and who, according to a tradition recorded by Virgil, was the earliest divinity worshiped by the Tuscans.* From the similarity of the name to the Greek Apollo, most writers have considered it a corruption of that word, and the later Etruscans no doubt transferred the attributes of the famous Greek divinity to their national god. But an examination of the ancient Numidian inscriptions discovers a divinity so closely similar that the suspicion is excited that the two are identical, and the resemblance to Apollo a mere coincidence. This divinity bears the name in the Numidian character *Abru*, and is almost certainly identical with the Guanche *Abŏra*,† showing the wide extension of the cult in the ancient Libyan peoples. Halévy thinks it reappears in a Latin inscription, *Ifru augusto sacrum*, found near Constantine.‡ The phonetic changes from *Abru* to *Aplu* are justified by numerous examples in both Etruscan and Libyan, and that this widely worshipped god of the Libyans should be referred to by the Etruscans as the first they adored is very natural.

Culzu; a member of the Etruscan pantheon, represented with torch and shears, a divinity apparently who decided the day of death.§ Allowing for the constant permutation of *l* and *r* in these dialects, Corippus mentions a Libyan divinity of the same name, of whom the Mauritanian chieftian Ierna was priest:

"Ierna ferox his ductor erat Gurzilque sacerdos."—*Johannidos*, ii, 109.

The idol of the god represented a divinity of horrid mien, suitable to a god of death.

"Simulacra sui secum tulit horrida Gurzil."—*Johannidos*, vi, 1139.

The derivation of the Libyan *Gurzil* is not very clear; but as the god who decided on the day of death, and cut or shortened the thread of life (for which purpose Culzu holds the shears in Etruscan portraiture), I am inclined to connect both names with the modern Berber verbal *guezzil*, pl. *guezlen*, to be short, *m'gazzil*,

* The poet has a Tuscan say:

"Summe deum, sancti custos Soractis Apollo,
Quem primi colimus."—*Æneid.*, xi, 785.

† Berthelot, *Bulletin de la Société d'Ethnologie*, Tome ii, p. 131.

‡ *Essai*, p. 156.

§ Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, s. 110.

separation, dismemberment, which Newman compares to the similarity of the English *shear, shears, short* (*Libyan Vocabulary*, p. 50). In the ancient Numidian epigraphy this deity is referred to in the literation *ghrsl* (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 121), and the final *l* seems to be retained in the Etruscan form *culsl* quoted by Corssen.*

Lala, goddess of the moon, probably the new moon, and hence of birth and fecundity. The name seems connected with the Libyan *lal*, to be born, *θalalil*, birth, etc. In Numido-Latin inscriptions, this precise form *Lala* appears (see Halévy, *Essai*, p. 83).

Leucothea, the white goddess. This is the Greek translation of the name of a female divinity much honored by the Etruscans, and especially at Pyrgos, the port of Caere, where a great and beautiful temple was dedicated to her (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, s, 54–56). The Etruscan form of the name is not given, but in the list of their beneficent goddesses occur the names *malavisχ*, and *melacuχ*, where the initial radical seems to be the same as in the Libyan *amelal*, white, *mellul*, it is white, etc. (Newman, *Lib. Vocab.*, pp. 61, 62). In these, I believe, we may recognize the goddess of Pyrgos. Whether her attribute of whiteness was derived from the sea foam or the morning light, or from some other cause, we have no means of knowing.

Manes, Mania, Mantus. The *dii Manes* of the ancient Latins are generally recognized to have been derived in character and name from Etruscan antecedents. The derivations of the word *Manes* offered by the later grammarians are as usual merely fanciful and worthless, nor has any acceptable one been suggested by modern writers. I believe it is revealed in the name of an ancient Libyan deity, *Motmanius*. This occurs in a votive inscription found near Constantine—*Motmanio et Mercurio sacrum* (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 157). The name seems to be clearly a compound of Libyan *emct;* aorist, *imūt*, to die, dead, and *emān*, soul,—a lord of the souls of the dead. In the first syllable we recognize the Etr. *mut-na*, a tomb, a place of the dead (see my *Eth. Aff. of Etruscans*, p. 19), and in *Manius* is the Etr. *Manes*, the current meaning of which was "the souls of the dead,"† allied to which was the Etr. name of the god of the underworld, *Mantus*, the goddess *Mania*, and perhaps the

* *Sprache der Etrusker*, s. 610.

† "Die Seele der Hingeschiedenen," Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, p. 98.

goddess often portrayed on Etruscan mirrors with the name *Munθu*, or *Munθχ*, believed by Deecke to be one of the auspicious *Manes* or spirits.

Mars. The old Italic name for this divinity was *Marmar*, which reappears in the Etr. *Mamar-ce*, a personal name, and *Maris*, the name of a divinity shown on Etr. mirrors. One of the months in the Etr. calendar was named from him. This name in the form *Marmar* was quite frequent in Libyan. I need but recall the Libyan general *Marmaria*, the tribe *Marmaridæ*, etc. It also appears in the Libyan inscriptions of Djebel-Thala (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 68). The identification appears therefore complete.

Menerva, the Etr. forms of which are *mnarva* and *meneruva*, is believed to be distinctly a Tuscan goddess whose original vocation was that of a protectress of children; only in later days did she assume the attributes of the Greek Athene (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 46 *sq*.). The name has a strong Libyan physiognomy. The prefix *men* is common in the dialects of that stem, and in the remainder of the name, *arua*, *eruva*, we are close to the modern Kabyle *arau*, pl. *arawan*, child, a meaning most consonant with her original character.

Sethlans. The Etr. compound *Seθre*, or *Set-ria*, is a proper name, the root of which *Set* (*seθ-*) probably reappears in the initial syllable of *Seθ-lans*, the Etr. Vulcan. This initial syllable *set-*, *sed-*, *sit-*, is a common one on the Libyan tombs of the earliest centuries (Inscrips. 77, 105, 128, 216, etc.). One of the Numidian names appears in the Latin form, *Sit-ilia*, and the Libyan *Sit-ila* (Inscrip. 216) is close to Etr. *Seθ-lans*. Halévy suggests its relationship to the Egyptian god *Set* (*Essai*, p. 81); but its origin may as well be from the Libyan root *s't*, now preserved in the Touareg, *is-suhet*, strong, *essahet*, violence, etc.; Kabyle, *set-mara*, by force, by might, etc.

Tina, *Tinia*. This divinity is stated to have corresponded to the Jupiter of the Romans, and his figure often appears on Etruscan mirrors and coins with the symbols of the lightning, the sceptre and the crown of rays. For these and other reasons (set forth in detail by Müller), he is looked upon as "the chief divinity of the Etruscans and the centre of their celestial world."

It must be regarded as a striking example of the permanence of mythologic conceptions that the same deity with the same name is

recorded by Corippus as the Jupiter of the Libyans in the sixth century A. D. In his lines referring to the gods they invoked on entering battle, he writes:

> "Mastiman alii; Maurorum hoc nomine gentes
> Tænarium dixere Jovem."—*Johannidos*, Lib. vii, 307.

The name *Mas-timan* is compounded of the common Libyan (and Etruscan) prefix of grandeur *mas*, and *timan*, in which the *n* in *Tina* has changed into *m*, a permutation frequent in the Moroccan (Rifian) dialect of Berber, in which the *mim* of the Arabic alphabet is often substituted for the *nun*.* The terminal *n* in so many of the Libyan names given by Corippus is thought by Halévy to be often an extraneous addition to the native form.†

Turm's, the Etruscan Mercury.
Turan, goddess of love.
Tarsu, a mythical Gorgon.
T'ruisie, a hero god.

In these and similar Etruscan names we appear to be in the presence of the exceedingly common ancient Libyan radical TR, seen in the inscriptions in such names as *Toura*, *Touran*, *Tir-mag*, *Tor-dak*, *Tour-sha*, etc., and in Corippus' poem in *Tor*, *Tur-sus*, etc.

The prefix used thus frequently in both dialects is likely to be a term of reverence, affection or amplification. It does not appear current in modern Berber. In its dialects the syllable means a height, a hill or mountain, *dar*, *adrar* (pl. *daran*); *tareelit*, a hill. The transfer of the idea of physical to social elevation is common to all languages (*son altesse*, his serene highness, etc.), and may be at the base of the meaning here.

Usil, the sun-god of the Etruscans, was portrayed with rays around his head and a bow in his hand (Müller, *Etrusker*, Bd. ii, p. 80). As I have remarked in my previous essay, the Libyan word for the sun at high noon is *ăsl*.

§ 5. *Names of Persons.*

The Etruscans were accustomed to employ both individual and family names, and in some instances all three of the names in use

* Basset, *Manuel de Langue Kabyle*, p. 9.

† "La terminaison *n* est une particularité de la prononciation punique des expressions libyques." *Essai*, p. 121

by the later Latins (prænomen, cognomen, agnomen). The same form frequently appears in different cases as family name and surname. A comparison of such personal names with those found on the sepulchral monuments of the ancient Libyans may lead to some definite results.

Avile is said by Deecke to be one of the most ancient and genuine of Etruscan personal names. It appears both as surname and family name on a number of the oldest inscriptions (see his remarks in Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 443). It is also found in the ancient Numidian character as *Avvil* (Inscrip. 215), and in the Numido-Latin inscriptions as *Avilius* and *Avilia* (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 142). These are precisely the Latin forms derived from the Etr. *avile*.

Aules, *Aulesa*, *Aulesla*, a very common, pure Etr. prænomen (Müller, *Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 444). It is exceeding close to that of the Libyan goddess *Aulisva*, which figures in a Latin inscription found near Constantine (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 156).

Betuus, *Betua ;* a Latinized form of Etr. *fetiu*, *feθiu ;* perhaps also *petvia* (Müller, *Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 477, 486). Probably allied to the Libyan *battus*, *bahatus*, chief, ruler (Halévy, *Essai*, p. 164).

Cæcina, the family name of the celebrated Etruscan gens of Volterra. The Etr. orthography is *caicna* or *ceicna*, in which the *na* is a usual termination, leaving the root *caic*' or *caeci*. This is similar to the names *kaka*, *ghaka*, of the Libyan inscriptions Nos. 206, 246.

Fastia, or *Hastia*, a pure Etruscan name, very frequent at times in the abbreviation *fas*, or as *hasθi*. A very common Libyan name is *bas* = *fas*, *fazth* (Inscrips. 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, etc.). A similar initial syllable is found in Corippus, as has been pointed out by Halévy (*Essai*, p. 24, note).

Lucŭmo, *Lucmo*, often appears in the Roman historians as the Etruscan name of individuals, but probably means "prince." Its usual Etr. form is *lauχumes*.* This is almost identical with the name of the son of Oesalus, king of Numidia, *Lacumaces*.† The radical reappears in the Etr. prænomen *laχu*, which is identical with the Libyan prænomen *laχo* in Inscrip. 185 (Halévy, *Essai*, p.

* Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, ss. 337, 496.

† *Livii Historiæ*, Lib. xxix, c. 29.

111). I am inclined to believe it identical with the *leku* tribe of the Libyan enemies of Meneptah I. *

The prefix *Mas*. Throughout the Libyan dialects *Mas* is an initial syllable of many personal names, and was common in the earliest times, applied both to persons and to gentes, *e. g.:* †

Mas-aesyli, an ethnic name.		
Mas-ight,	"	"
Mas-ulis, *or* Musulus, an ethnic name.		
Mas-adkam, a person		(Inscrip. 27).
Mas-wā,	"	(Inscrip. 34).
Mas-oulat,	"	(Inscrip. 31).
Mas-i,	"	(Inscrip. 32).
Mas-sirā	"	(Inscrip. 50).
Mas sivo,	"	
Mas-akra,	"	(Inscrip. 221, etc.).
Mas-ilal	"	

In Roman historians we find:

Mas-inissa, a Numidian king.		
Mas-tumus,	"	prince.
Mas-timan,	"	deity.
Mas-intha,	"	noble.

And numerous other examples.

General Faidherbe calls attention to the frequency of this prefix, and both he and Prof. Halévy are inclined to derive it from a root "to beget," and assign it the signification of "son of," "children of," etc.‡

This derivation is doubtful, as its radical has not such a signification in modern Berber. In the Touareg dialect *mess* or *messi* means ruler, lord, master, and *mas*, a paternal uncle.§ The former significations are the most applicable and fill all the conditions of the employment of this prefix to personal and tribal names.

This same prefix appears with almost equal frequency in Etruscan proper names, especially those of prominent people and families, as the following examples show:

Mas-tarna (Etr. *Macstrna*), the Etr. appellation of Servius Tul-

* Comp. Halévy, *Essai*, pp. 111, 173, etc.

† See Faidherbe, *Collection Complete des Inscriptions Numidiques*, pp. 22, 36.

‡ *Essai d'Epigraphie Libyque*, p. 126.

§ Newman, *Libyan Vocabulary*, p. 196.

lius (see Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, s. 111, note), a title of thoroughly Libyan physiognomy, meaning "great conqueror," from the verbal *irna*, to conquer; *tarna*, supremacy, victory (Newman, *Libyan Vocabulary*, p. 172).

Mas-entius, *Mezentius*, an ancient Etruscan ruler of Caere, said by Cato to have been a contemporary of Æneas (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 109). Deecke believes that the name reappears in family names *mes-i*, *mes-ial*, etc., of Perugia (*Ibid.*, s. 495).

Mus-onii; Latinized form of an Etruscan family name near Orvieto, borne by the writer C. Musonius Rufus. Deecke compares it with the Etruscan names:

Mus'-ni, found near Cortona.

Mus-enial, found near Perugia.

Mus-u, found at Corneto.

All corresponding to *mas*.

Mas-o; Latinized form of Etr. *mas-u*, allied to *mas-ve*, *mas-veniai*, etc. (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 501).

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fixes, both to personal and place names, as *Vel-aθri*, *Vel-suna*, the Etr. goddess *Vol-tumna*, the family names *Vel-usna*, *Vel-ce*, *Vel-imna*, the prænomens *Vel*, *Vel-θur*, and many others.

They occur with equal frequency in the Libyan epigraphy, as *Vol* (Ins. 167, 200), *Volt* (Ins. 146, 148), in *Volux*, son of the Numidian Bocchus (Sallust, *Jugurtha*, 105), etc.

§ 6. *Proper Names from Corippus.*

A. Cresconius Corippus was an African bishop who lived at the court of Justinian, and wrote a description, in good Latin verse, of the successful campaign of Johannes, a proconsul, against the Mauritanians, about 550. His epos, called the *Johannis*, is peculiarly valuable for my purpose on account of the numerous Libyan proper names it contains, defaced no doubt by forcing them into smooth Latin forms, but often recognizable in their radicals.

In comparing them with the Etruscan onomasticon we must remember that nearly 1800 years had brought their changes on Libyan speech since the Etruscan colonists quitted the African shores.

I shall not undertake to do more than present a list of names from Corippus, side by side with others from Corssen's *Sprache der Etrusker*, to illustrate their strong phonetic resemblance and occasional identity. To discover their etymology and signification is a task I must leave to future students.

Comparison of Libyan personal names from Corippus with Etruscan personal names from Corssen:

LIBYAN.	ETRUSCAN.
afun,	*afuna*.
alantas,	*aleθna*.
ancus,	*ancan*.
anestus,	*anes*.
arcan,	*arcenzios*.
azan,	*ezunu*.
bezina,	*felzinal*.
buranto,	*farθana*.
caggun,	*caicun*.

LIBYAN.	ETRUSCAN.
calamen,	*calu.*
camars,	*camals.*
canapus,	*canpnas.*
carcasen,	*carkna.*
cullen,	*clellu.*
cuilan,	*c' lan.*
cusina,	*cusinei.*
gamas-oran,	*camas.*
gantal,	*caneθa.*
ierna,	*herina.*
ilasan,	*lasa.*
irtus,	*hirtunes.*
mas-,	*mas-.*
narti,	*nortia.*
sacoma,	*secune.*
sarzun,	*sertuna.*
suartifan,	*sauturin.*
succur,	*seccu.*
sucrus,	*secis.*
tamazu,	*tama.*
tanadus,	*tanna.*
tanin,	*tania.*
tarincus,	*tarchnas.*
tor,	*tarsu.*
tumudan,	*tumu.*
tursus,	*tursu.*

The word *clan* in the above list appears on a hundred or more Etruscan sepulchral inscriptions. It has been generally translated "son" (see Müller, *Die Etrusker,* Bd. i, p. 502, note of Deecke). Sometimes it appears as *klan,* or simply *cl; clen* is an occasional variation.

In this word the vowel of the first syllable has been syncopated, as Deecke has pointed out was exceedingly common both in pure Etruscan words and those drawn from the Greek (see his note and examples in Müller, *Etrusker,* Bd. ii, p. 333). The full reading should therefore be *kel-an.* This explanation discloses at once the sense of the word by means of the Libyan tongue. There the word *kel* means household, one family, those dwelling in one tent or

home. The Etruscan *clan*, or *clens*, should be translated "of the home of," "of the family of," or something to that effect; not necessarily a son.

§ 7. *Place Names.*

The place names handed down to us from Etruscan times offer peculiar difficulties in etymology, for it is very likely that the immigrant Libyans who founded the Etruscan State generally adopted the geographical names they found locally current, and only exceptionally applied others from their own tongue. In some Italian examples we may be tempted to recognize Libyan roots. Thus, in *Arbona*, *Arretium*, *Arno*, *Arna* (near Perugia), etc., there may lurk the Libyan *ar*, mountain. This is rendered more probable by the Etruscan name for the Atlas mountains, or their mythical hero Atlas, which was *Aril*, where we can scarcely err in recognizing the root *ar* (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, s. 113).

M. Rinn believes with Dr. Shaw that the geographical name *Tadertos*, *Τυδερτα*, is identical with the Berber *taddert*, a village or town of stone houses.* Many Etruscan remains have been discovered there, proving that it was one of their settlements (Müller, *Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 98).

In the name of the very ancient Etr. city called by the Latins *Caere*, in Etr. *χaire*, we seem to have the Berber *gari* or *gheri*, a fortified town or city.

An extended examination of these place names offers yet greater difficulties than of the personal names, and I shall not undertake it at present.

Should the above comparative notes of Etruscan and Libyan proper nouns indicate a recognizable relationship between the two tongues, other students will soon be found, with larger command of material, to carry out the comparison and to ascertain what closeness of origin a prolonged investigation is capable of revealing.

* As distinguished from *adouwar*, a village of tents. *Dictionaire Français-Berbere*, s. v., village. See also Rinn, *Les Origines Berbères*, p. 195.

Obituary Notice of Charles Albert Ashburner.

By J. P. Lesley.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, February 21, 1890.)

Born at Philadelphia, February 9, 1854, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, June, 1874, Mr. Ashburner was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society January 16, 1880. Proud of this honor, as he justly esteemed it, he took the liveliest interest in the history, the principles and the meetings of the Society, and became the personal friend of its members, all of whom can testify to the vivacity of his zeal for science, to the geniality of his nature, and to his honor as a gentleman. Those of them who cultivated or who practiced geology, whether in its abstract or in its applied forms, will easily join me in testifying to his ability as a geologist. But no one can relate so confidently and precisely his short, brilliant career of student, field-worker, explorer, discoverer and publisher of physical truths in this branch of science, as one to whom he gave his unbroken friendship for nearly twenty years, one who received from him a thousand benefits. My gratitude for his life equals my grief at his death, and any eulogium my fellow-members accord to me the privilege of giving to his memory will seem cold and empty in comparison of his deserts; for by such examples we learn by heart the lesson, that praise of a wise good man must, after all, be left to the good and wise Creator who invented him.

This learned and ancient Society is one of the few that refuse to be chained to the service of the purely material and useful sciences; one of the few that, in these modernest times, still avouch a willingness to discuss the supernatural; to investigate the invisible and impalpable; to philosophize on the functions of soul as well as body; to protect from destruction and oblivion the claims of human virtue to precede wit and work. Therefore we hold to our traditions, and, in our quarterly elections, we prefer to the question: "Is the candidate for membership a genius or an expert?" the more important question: "Is he a just and honorable gentleman?" A genuine respect for Christianity still lingers in this hall of science; and when we place on record a memorial of some member lately lost to our meetings, we recall with more satisfaction the pleasures which his actually admirable character has contributed to our social intercourse than the profit which accrued to us from his contributions to our Transactions and Proceedings, or even than the fame which he may have won for himself and for the Society.

Governed by this, the real genius of our Society, I put in front of all Mr. Ashburner's virtues his virtue itself; in short, his Christian character, his rooted love of his kind, of just dealing, of exact truthfulness, his honesty, his generosity, his amiability, his respect for the rights and sympathy with the wrongs of other men; qualities which, in him, I know by long

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> "Mastiman alii; Maurorum hoc nomine gentes
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The name *Mas-timan* is compounded of the common Libyan (and Etruscan) prefix of grandeur *mas*, and *timan*, in which the *n* in *Tina* has changed into *m*, a permutation frequent in the Moroccan (Rifian) dialect of Berber, in which the *mim* of the Arabic alphabet is often substituted for the *nun*.* The terminal *n* in so many of the Libyan names given by Corippus is thought by Halévy to be often an extraneous addition to the native form.†

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In these and similar Etruscan names we appear to be in the presence of the exceedingly common ancient Libyan radical TR, seen in the inscriptions in such names as *Toura*, *Touran*, *Tir-mag*, *Tor-dak*, *Tour-sha*, etc., and in Corippus' poem in *Tor*, *Tur-sus*, etc.

The prefix used thus frequently in both dialects is likely to be a term of reverence, affection or amplification. It does not appear current in modern Berber. In its dialects the syllable means a height, a hill or mountain, *dar*, *adrar* (pl. *daran*); *tareelit*, a hill. The transfer of the idea of physical to social elevation is common to all languages (*son altesse*, his serene highness, etc.), and may be at the base of the meaning here.

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§ 5. *Names of Persons.*

The Etruscans were accustomed to employ both individual and family names, and in some instances all three of the names in use

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by the later Latins (prænomen, cognomen, agnomen). The same form frequently appears in different cases as family name and surname. A comparison of such personal names with those found on the sepulchral monuments of the ancient Libyans may lead to some definite results.

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The prefix *Mas.* Throughout the Libyan dialects *Mas* is an initial syllable of many personal names, and was common in the earliest times, applied both to persons and to gentes, *e. g.:* †

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Mas-ulis, *or* Musulus, an ethnic name.		
Mas-adkam, a person		(Inscrip. 27).
Mas-wā,	"	(Inscrip. 34).
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In Roman historians we find:

Mas-inissa, a Numidian king.		
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‡ Newman, *Libyan Vocabulary*, p. 197.

fixes, both to personal and place names, as *Vel-aθri*, *Vel-suna*, the Etr. goddess *Vol-tumna*, the family names *Vel-usna*, *Vel-ce*, *Vel-imna*, the prænomens *Vel*, *Vel-θur*, and many others.

They occur with equal frequency in the Libyan epigraphy, as *Vol* (Ins. 167, 200), *Volt* (Ins. 146, 148), in *Volux*, son of the Numidian Bocchus (Sallust, *Jugurtha*, 105), etc.

§ 6. *Proper Names from Corippus.*

A. Cresconius Corippus was an African bishop who lived at the court of Justinian, and wrote a description, in good Latin verse, of the successful campaign of Johannes, a proconsul, against the Mauritanians, about 550. His epos, called the *Johannis*, is peculiarly valuable for my purpose on account of the numerous Libyan proper names it contains, defaced no doubt by forcing them into smooth Latin forms, but often recognizable in their radicals.

In comparing them with the Etruscan onomasticon we must remember that nearly 1800 years had brought their changes on Libyan speech since the Etruscan colonists quitted the African shores.

I shall not undertake to do more than present a list of names from Corippus, side by side with others from Corssen's *Sprache der Etrusker*, to illustrate their strong phonetic resemblance and occasional identity. To discover their etymology and signification is a task I must leave to future students.

Comparison of Libyan personal names from Corippus with Etruscan personal names from Corssen:

LIBYAN.	ETRUSCAN.
afun,	*afuna*.
alantas,	*aleθna*.
ancus,	*ancan*.
anestus,	*anes*.
arcan,	*arcenzios*.
azan,	*ezunu*.
bezina,	*felzinal*.
buranto,	*farθana*.
caggun,	*caicun*.

LIBYAN.	ETRUSCAN.
calamen,	*calu.*
camars,	*camals.*
canapus,	*canpnas.*
carcasen,	*carkna.*
cullen,	*clellu.*
cuilan,	*c'lan.*
cusina,	*cusinei.*
gamas-oran,	*camas.*
gantal,	*caneθa.*
ierna,	*herina.*
ilasan,	*lasa.*
irtus,	*hirtunes.*
mas-,	*mas-.*
narti,	*nortia.*
sacoma,	*secune.*
sarzun,	*sertuna.*
s artifan,	*sauturin.*
succur,	*seccu.*
sucrus,	*secis.*
tamazu,	*tama.*
tanadus,	*tanna.*
tanin,	*tania.*
tarincus,	*tarchnas.*
tor,	*tarsu.*
tumudan,	*tumu.*
tursus,	*tursu.*

The word *clan* in the above list appears on a hundred or more Etruscan sepulchral inscriptions. It has been generally translated "son" (see Müller, *Die Etrusker,* Bd. i, p. 502, note of Deecke). Sometimes it appears as *klan,* or simply *cl; clen* is an occasional variation.

In this word the vowel of the first syllable has been syncopated, as Deecke has pointed out was exceedingly common both in pure Etruscan words and those drawn from the Greek (see his note and examples in Müller, *Etrusker,* Bd. ii, p. 333). The full reading should therefore be *kel-an.* This explanation discloses at once the sense of the word by means of the Libyan tongue. There the word *kel* means household, one family, those dwelling in one tent or

home. The Etruscan *clan*, or *clens*, should be translated "of the home of," "of the family of," or something to that effect; not necessarily a son.

§ 7. *Place Names.*

The place names handed down to us from Etruscan times offer peculiar difficulties in etymology, for it is very likely that the immigrant Libyans who founded the Etruscan State generally adopted the geographical names they found locally current, and only exceptionally applied others from their own tongue. In some Italian examples we may be tempted to recognize Libyan roots. Thus, in *Arbona*, *Arretium*, *Arno*, *Arna* (near Perugia), etc., there may lurk the Libyan *ar*, mountain. This is rendered more probable by the Etruscan name for the Atlas mountains, or their mythical hero Atlas, which was *Aril*, where we can scarcely err in recognizing the root *ar* (Müller, *Die Etrusker*, Bd. ii, s. 113).

M. Rinn believes with Dr. Shaw that the geographical name *Tadertos*, *Τυδερτα*, is identical with the Berber *taddert*, a village or town of stone houses.* Many Etruscan remains have been discovered there, proving that it was one of their settlements (Müller, *Etrusker*, Bd. i, s. 98).

In the name of the very ancient Etr. city called by the Latins *Caere*, in Etr. *χaire*, we seem to have the Berber *gari* or *gheri*, a fortified town or city.

An extended examination of these place names offers yet greater difficulties than of the personal names, and I shall not undertake it at present.

Should the above comparative notes of Etruscan and Libyan proper nouns indicate a recognizable relationship between the two tongues, other students will soon be found, with larger command of material, to carry out the comparison and to ascertain what closeness of origin a prolonged investigation is capable of revealing.

* As distinguished from *adouwar*, a village of tents. *Dictionaire Français-Berbere*, s. v., village. See also Rinn, *Les Origines Berbères*, p. 195.

Obituary Notice of Charles Albert Ashburner.

By J. P. Lesley.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, February 21, 1890.)

Born at Philadelphia, February 9, 1854, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, June, 1874, Mr. Ashburner was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society January 16, 1880. Proud of this honor, as he justly esteemed it, he took the liveliest interest in the history, the principles and the meetings of the Society, and became the personal friend of its members, all of whom can testify to the vivacity of his zeal for science, to the geniality of his nature, and to his honor as a gentleman. Those of them who cultivated or who practiced geology, whether in its abstract or in its applied forms, will easily join me in testifying to his ability as a geologist. But no one can relate so confidently and precisely his short, brilliant career of student, field-worker, explorer, discoverer and publisher of physical truths in this branch of science, as one to whom he gave his unbroken friendship for nearly twenty years, one who received from him a thousand benefits. My gratitude for his life equals my grief at his death, and any eulogium my fellow-members accord to me the privilege of giving to his memory will seem cold and empty in comparison of his deserts; for by such examples we learn by heart the lesson, that praise of a wise good man must, after all, be left to the good and wise Creator who invented him.

This learned and ancient Society is one of the few that refuse to be chained to the service of the purely material and useful sciences; one of the few that, in these modernest times, still avouch a willingness to discuss the supernatural; to investigate the invisible and impalpable; to philosophize on the functions of soul as well as body; to protect from destruction and oblivion the claims of human virtue to precede wit and work. Therefore we hold to our traditions, and, in our quarterly elections, we prefer to the question: "Is the candidate for membership a genius or an expert?" the more important question: "Is he a just and honorable gentleman?" A genuine respect for Christianity still lingers in this hall of science; and when we place on record a memorial of some member lately lost to our meetings, we recall with more satisfaction the pleasures which his actually admirable character has contributed to our social intercourse than the profit which accrued to us from his contributions to our Transactions and Proceedings, or even than the fame which he may have won for himself and for the Society.

Governed by this, the real genius of our Society, I put in front of all Mr. Ashburner's virtues his virtue itself; in short, his Christian character, his rooted love of his kind, of just dealing, of exact truthfulness, his honesty, his generosity, his amiability, his respect for the rights and sympathy with the wrongs of other men; qualities which, in him, I know by long

and close acquaintance with him were not words, but things; not theoretical, but practical; and of these things I could reveal many instances not known to nor suspected by others. He had an exceedingly sweet and gentle nature. Had it not been for these fundamental and innate principles of character his irritable, nervous temperament would have done him and others a world of mischief. His master passion, I think, was the desire of fame; he loved above all things to be correctly understood and well and widely esteemed, but I never knew him to sacrifice either truth or justice to this passion; and I have often had occasion to wonder at the pleasure which he took, in the most child-like way, in the genuine fame of other men, even when they were his competitors. He had the great good fortune of possessing ambition as a virtue and not as a vice; and the line which his ambition took was a conduct in life having for its object the establishment of a universal confidence not so much in his ability as in his trustworthiness. It was successful. All worthy men who knew him well came to the point of trusting him implicitly, and the satisfaction he took in this was touching to those who loved him, it was so naïve, so simple hearted, so truly beautiful.

In this Society, among whose members are so many religious men, I can venture to add that Mr. Ashburner was a religious man without derogating from his reputation as a philosopher. He was a zealous Protestant Episcopalian, and, when a young man, "was an active worker in Trinity Church, West Philadelphia, showing great ability as a teacher of a large men's Bible class; and, when he moved to Pittsburgh, he became at once connected with Calvary Church." I quote these words from *The Churchman* as part of the record of his life. The writer goes on to say: "Here, as elsewhere, and in everything he did, he illustrated how a scientific student can be an earnest Christian believer, and an indefatigable man of business can find time to do Christian work and show an interest in all Church matters. It was characteristic alike of his nature, thoughtfulness and Christian character, that one of his last acts, when death was fast approaching, was to send a contribution to his rector to be used for benevolent purposes; and his devout spirit is equally attested in the fact that he received with quiet joy just before he died the memorial of his Lord's death."

Of all this I know nothing as a churchman and nothing from my personal intercourse with him, for we never broached between us a single bottle of that hot wine, theology; I respecting the genuine spiritual convictions of a young man born and bred in "The Church," and he knowing perfectly that I accepted no creed for more than a human invention, and thought no better of a good man who taught an Episcopalian Bible class than of a good man who sent in an exact record of an oil-well boring. It was quite enough for me to know that he was growing year by year into the likeness of the man Christ Jesus; and for him, that he knew that I knew it. On that basis, all our intercourse proceeded happily. And on that basis, I feel sure, rose slowly and steadily the fine structure of his

reputation, capped at last by fame. For he became famous. He became known and respected more widely in the United States and other countries than commonly happens to a man who dies in his thirty-sixth year. Yes, young and famous, worthily so.

Now, what a wonderful, what a mysterious thing it is, that while millions of old men are annually exhaled from the surface of this planet whom nobody a few miles from their temporary resting places ever heard of, and who are no more noticed when they pass away than so many drops of dew disappearing from a field of grass, it should happen that now and then when a young man dies hundreds of eyes are moist with tears and thousands of people express the most sensible and selfish regret. Usefulness is the only explanation of the phenomenon.

This is the American Philosophical Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. To that title it was born; with that title, it still lives and works. It is not a club. It is not a monastery. It is not a museum of curiosities in human form. It is not a theatre on which the vulgar, selfish passions of the heart can display themselves—vanity, pride, self-interest, dressed in their motley of untruths and antipathies. Its *raison d'etre* was public usefulness; its only claim to permanence is continual usefulness. Genius is a valid claim to its membership, but only on condition of being useful to the world, and doing wrong to no man. Knowledge is a claim to its membership, but only on the conditions of modesty, kindness and usefulness. We philosophers of Philadelphia belong by name at least to a utilitarian school of philosophy. Our motto is *pro bono publico.* Every member of this Society should adopt as the leading principles of his knowledge, *non sibi sed toti.* In Syria, the chief ceremonial was the anniversary celebration of the death of Adonis; this Society should have an annual celebration of the death of the personal selfishness of each and all of its members. Self-sacrifice is a *sine qua non* for usefulness.

Therefore, thinking thus, much as I esteemed Ashburner for his personal, manly and Christian virtues, I admired him most of all for his usefulness, his perpetual and varied usefulness, in so many ways, to so large a number of persons. His restless energy was useful to the old and the sluggish; his masterful will was useful to the young, the reckless and the insubordinate. His accurate methods of investigation, his patient, exhaustive observation of facts, his indefatigable coördination and discussion of them to avoid false generalizations, his dogged perseverance in every attempt to devise the very best apparatus and arrange the very best method for the useful publication of the knowledge he thus won—these made him not only a master of subjects in his branch of science, but a master of less able men, whom he thereby helped largely to educate. But he took special delight and exhibited his greatest skill in "diffusing useful knowledge"—a genuine child of Franklin—a worthy member of this Society. In season and out of season he kept on diffusing useful knowledge, knowing the best ways of doing it. He had not a spark of

false pride about it. He never acted or spoke as a savant. He did not in the least know how to speak to the public *de haut en bas.* He went straight in, everywhere, and at all times, for spreading the useful knowledge he had accumulated, much of it by his own discoveries, *pro bono publico.*

Mr. Ashburner was educated at Friends' Central School, the Philadelphia High School and the Towne Scientific School of the University of Pennsylvania. While an undergraduate, he was one of a party who made a survey of Delaware river and bay for Government purposes. His special course in the University was civil engineering, and he was graduated first in his class. He began his professional career in the service of the United States Light House Board. The year following the installation of the Second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania (1874) he was commissioned as one of the aids to Mr. Dewees, Assistant Geologist for the Juniata River district. Mr. Dewees confined his attention to the fossil ore beds, leaving Mr. Ashburner and Mr. Charles E. Billin to make a survey and contour map of the south slope of Jack's mountain and the little valleys and ridges between it and the river. The excellence of this map proved the value of the severe drill they had had in the drawing room of the geological department of the Towne School, and the admirable instruction of Prof. Haupt. Their cross-sections at Logan's Gap, Lewistown, McGeesville, Mount Union, etc., published in "Report of Progress F," in 1878, are among the most perfect and beautiful works of that kind in the literature of our science in this or any other country.

The same kind of work was afterwards carried on by them south-westward into Huntingdon county, as far as Orbisonia and Three Springs. The beautiful maps and sections of this Aughwick division of the district, and the accurate discussion of the cross-faults at those two places, so thoroughly established their reputation as field geologists, that separate districts were assigned to them as independent Assistant Geologists on the survey ; to Mr. Billin, the complicated region of the Seven Mountains, in Snyder, Union, Lycoming, Centre and East Huntingdon counties ; and to Mr. Ashburner, Sideling hill and East Broad Top Coal basin, in West Huntingdon county. Here again his maps and sections showed that he combined the qualities of geologist and artist in the highest degree.

In 1876, he was commissioned to survey McKean county with the Bradford oil region ; and afterwards Elk, Cameron, and Forest counties. Two years were spent in this work, ably assisted by Mr. Arthur W. Sheafer. His report on McKean with many illustrations, including a complete contour map of the county, was published, as "Report of Progress R," in 1880 ; and his second report on the other three counties (RR) in 1885, being delayed by his survey of the anthracite region and the necessity for revisions and additions which he deemed it necessary to make himself.

In 1880, he was commissioned to plan the long-delayed survey of the anthracite coal fields of Eastern Pennsylvania. His plans were approved, and that survey was placed in his hands. He himself selected his corps of

able assistants; established his offices at several points of the region; entered into personal relations with railroad and coal companies; made friends and correspondents of all the civil and mining engineers, colliery managers, superintendents, and mine bosses; laid out a general map of the region; planned its division into sheets to be successively published; and gradually, by a wise and skillful system of proof reading of each advance sheet by all intelligent interested parties previous to actual printing, he acquired the entire confidence and respect of the mining community.

The sheets that appeared with his first report on the Panthar Creek basin (the east end of the Southern field, between the Lehigh and Little Schuylkill rivers) showed what was to be expected of this great geological survey. Those of the Northern field (Wyoming basin), of the Eastern Middle field (Beaver Meadow group), and of the Western Middle field (Mahanoy and Shamokin basins) followed during the years 1881 to 1887, when he resigned his commission to accept business relations with Mr. Westinghouse, of Pittsburgh, as geological expert of his companies.

Previous to this, however, Mr. Ashburner had a heavier load laid upon him, for he acted as responsible First Assistant Geologist of the State Survey, and had a general supervision of all that went on in the State, being the trusted adviser and executive officer of the State Geologist. The anthracite survey was finished by his accomplished first assistant, Mr. Frank A. Hill, who resigned with all the other members of the corps, June 1, 1889, the term fixed by the last act of Legislature for the completion of the work of the Survey.

Mr. Ashburner, for two years before his death, was chiefly occupied in visiting and reporting upon supposed new oil and gas regions in Canada and the United States, and also upon gold and copper properties in the Rocky Mountain regions. On his last return from Arizona he fell ill and suddenly died at his home in Pittsburgh, at the age of thirty-six, leaving a wife and two children, and a multitude of ardent friends and admiring acquaintances, to lament an irreparable loss.

His contributions to the current literature of his science may be found in the Proceedings of this Society under the titles: "On Kintzie's Firedamp Indicator," Vol. xxi, p. 283; "Notes on the Natural Bridge of Virginia," xxi, 699; "Remarks on the Recent Publications of the Geological Survey of Pennsylvania," xxii, 86.

He was a member of the American Institute of Mining Engineers from 1875, and one of its managers in 1885, 1886, and 1887; and his papers will be found in its Transactions, entitled: "The Bradford Oil District," vii, 316; "The Bragos Coal Field, Texas," ix, 495; "New Method of Mapping the Anthracite Coal Fields of Pennsylvania," ix, 506; "The Flannery Boiler setting for the Prevention of Smoke," x, 212; "The Anthracite Coal Beds of Pennsylvania," xi, 20; "The Product and Exhaustion of the Oil Regions of Pennsylvania and New York," xiv, 419; "The Geology of Natural Gas," xiv, 428; "The Classification and Constitution of Penn-

sylvania Anthracites," xiv, 706; "The Geological Distribution of Natural Gas in the United States," xv, 565; "The Geological Relations of the Nanticoke Disaster," xv, 629; "Coal Production in Utah," xvi, 356; "Petroleum and Natural Gas in New York State," xvi, 906; "The Development and Statistics of the Alabama Coal Fields for 1887," xvii, 206; "The Geology of Buffalo, as related to Natural Gas; Explorations along the Niagara River," xvii, 398; "Statistics of Coal Mining and of Miners' Wages in the United States," xviii (*in press*); "Natural Gas Explorations on the Ontario Peninsular" (*in press*). A "Biographical Notice of Captain W. R. Jones, of Pittsburgh," is among his unpublished papers.

But his lasting fame will depend more upon his "Reports of Progress of the Geological Survey of Pennsylvania," and the sheets of the "Anthracite Coal Fields," than upon the admirable generalizations in the papers mentioned above, proofs as they are of the healthy maturity of his native genius for a true and broad synthesis of facts. It was in recognition of the high value of his Reports that the University of Pennsylvania conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Science.

Were I called to enumerate his actual discoveries, I should begin with that of the curious ninety-foot side-throw in the Black Log Mountain gap at Orbisonia, dying out at each end of the fault. It is worthy of special notice as the only cross-fault as yet detected in any of the many mountain gaps of the State, and as throwing a clear light upon the curious system of throws encountered by the Rock Hill Iron and Coal Company in driving their gangways westward, showing that the whole district had been subjected to a warp movement fracturing it in parallel lines at right angles to the strike.

Then I would cite the Three Springs fault in the same district of Southern Huntingdon county, exhibiting the same features, but with a maximum side-throw at the present surface of 1200 feet. In "Report F" will be found his beautiful geometrical construction of this fault in the underground, determining its extent in depth.

I would cite also his discovery of the unsuspected subcarboniferous coal measures in the Pocono (Vespertine) formation, No. X, cut by the East Broad Top railroad through Sideling hill in the same county. The immediate appreciation of the great importance of this revelation, by so young a field worker, was the best evidence of his scientific genius that could be given; and his section of these very curious coal beds at the dawn of the Coal Age has been our guide through a most difficult chapter of Appalachian geology.

Of equal importance to the petroleum industry was his discovery of the increase in thickness of the Pocono formation, overlying the Bradford oil formation, southward into Elk and Cameron counties, for it fully explained the failures of oil-well sinkers to reach the oil horizon which they sought by rule of thumb, supposing that the same number of feet would avail them in all parts of that region.

His determination that the Salamanca conglomerate of New York was

much lower in the series than the Olean conglomerate of Pennsylvania was another important contribution to our knowledge.

But his best discoveries were in the Anthracite region. He revolutionized our old ideas of the cross-sections; discovered the most remarkable overlaps and plication faults in the bottoms of the synclinals; and in a word differentiated the simple structure of Whelpley and McKinley into a complicated series of unexpected irregularities; giving precisely that knowledge to the colliery engineers which they most needed.

Another important discovery resulted from his later work for Mr. Westinghouse in the Catskill region of New York, viz., that the great Ordovician (Siluro-Cambrian) limestone formation, topped by the Trenton, was greatly thicker than had been supposed, and consequently that its supposed thinning out from Pennsylvania northward towards Canada was, in a good degree, a mistake. Subsequently he was able to substantiate this important fact over a wider field in the West.

Lastly, I would cite his discovery of the true general rate of rise of the Palæozoic formations from Pennsylvania into Canada West, by his discussion of the recent borings on the south shore of Lake Ontario and the north and south shores of Lake Erie. The slope from Franklin to Erie had been pretty well fixed in 1840; and Carll's measurements had made the rate more accurate; but we have it now in a perfectly reliable form, with a constant that cannot be well altered.

His discovery that some of the western petroleum comes from the drift was one of many minor additions to our knowledge made by this admirable field geologist, who has passed away in his prime, yet so young, leaving us only to regret that our science has not a larger store of them.

Obituary Notice of Henry Simmons Frieze, LL.D.

By James B. Angell, Ann Arbor, Mich.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 7, 1890.)

Henry Simmons Frieze, LL.D., was born in Boston, Mass., September 15, 1817, and died in Ann Arbor, Mich., December 7, 1889. He was the son of Jacob Frieze and Betsy (Slade) Frieze. His father, who was a native of Rhode Island, and, during most of his life, a resident of that State, was for several years the pastor of Universalist churches in Massachusetts and in Rhode Island. Subsequently, he became an editorial writer for newspapers in Providence, and in the days when pamphlets were one of the main instruments in political warfare, he was somewhat noted in Rhode Island for his skill as a pamphleteer.

The son was obliged at an early age to gain his own livelihood. He served first as a clerk in Providence, and then engaged in teaching music

and playing the organ in Newport. He made a hasty preparation for college, and entered Brown University in 1837. Through his conspicuous musical talent he supported himself during his college course. He graduated in 1841 with the first honors of his class.

He was at once appointed Tutor in Latin, and discharged the duties of that post for three years with eminent success. In conjunction with a classmate he then took charge of the University Grammar School in Providence, and assisted in the conduct of it until 1854. Many of the men who have since been prominent in Rhode Island affairs were trained there either for business life or for admission to college.

In 1854, Mr. Frieze was appointed to the chair of Latin in the University of Michigan, a position which he held to the day of his death. It has always been deemed by the friends of that University a singular good fortune which brought it in its early days so accomplished a classical scholar and so refined a gentleman as Prof. Frieze. He awakened at once a fervid enthusiasm for the studies he taught, and has during his long life exerted a remarkable influence in promoting a taste for literary and æsthetic culture.

He has published editions of Virgil and of Quintilian which have received the warm approbation of our best scholars. He also wrote a volume, which was published in London, on the art-life of the eminent Italian sculptor, Giovanni Dupré. It contained translations of two dialogues on Art by Prof. Conti, of Florence. Two addresses of his are noteworthy ; one a commemorative discourse on Dr. Tappan, the first President of the University ; the other on the subject of Religion in State Universities, delivered at the semi-centennial celebration of the University, in 1887.

Three times he held the office of Acting President of the University, from 1869 to 1871, from June, 1880, to February, 1882, and from October, 1887, to February, 1888. For fourteen years he was Dean of the Literary Faculty. His reports as Acting President attracted attention as very able discussions of University problems. Especially vigorous was his argument in his Report for 1881 in favor of shortening the college course from four years to three. Probably few men in the country had more carefully considered the questions of University administration, whether in Europe or in America. Several of the very important innovations which have been successfully introduced into the University of Michigan in the last twenty-five years owed their origin to him. Conspicuous among these is the system of admitting students without examination from preparatory schools which have been visited by a committee of the Faculty and approved. The plan has now been widely adopted, sometimes without the precautions with which he guarded it. The introduction of the elective system, the conferring of higher degrees only on examination, and the establishment of a Professorship of Music, found in him an effective advocate.

He was a most attractive and inspiring teacher. He was passionately

fond of art, whether painting, sculpture, architecture, or music. He was an accomplished pianist and organist. He lectured on the history of art for many of the last years of his life. His critical judgment of works of art had been cultivated by prolonged residence in Europe. He was a man of sensitive and delicate nature. His modesty was almost a fault. He was the most agreeable of companions and the most faithful of friends. A more refined, gentle, cultured, lovable man, one would seldom meet. Withal he had a most devout spirit. He was almost from boyhood a communicant of the Protestant Episcopal Church, but was in most catholic relations with Christians of every name. He represented the finest type of American scholar, college officer, Christian gentleman.

Obituary Notice of Franklin B. Gowen.

By Richard Vaux.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 7, 1890.*)

Called to our Federal Capital, in the District of Columbia, by onerous and perplexing professional engagements, Franklin B. Gowen there died on the 14th day of December, 1889.

His life was remarkable. It was a lesson and an example. His mind was of more than exceptional power. His energy seemed exhaustless. A courage that met, without hesitancy, opposition and antagonism, was animated by a temperament so sanguine, that defeat was obscured by the brilliant promise of anticipated success.

Mr. Gowen was devoted to literature, assiduously cultivating his taste for its highest standards, proficient in scientific knowledge, to which he applied intelligent study, and an eloquent, impressive and learned lawyer.

He possessed capacities for the management of great enterprises involving great interests, so that it may be said of him, he was the peer of the distinguished men of his day.

His public speeches were masterly. In the discussion of principles, the treatment of details, grouping the arguments as to each, he brought out the strongest points of his contentions with a forensic ability recognized to be of a high order.

He was capable of augmented possibilities. His memorable and successful effort to maintain the safeguards of imperiled rights and public security attests his force of character, latent till stimulated into action. This statement is not amenable to the criterion of a too florid coloring; it is rather in harmony with the natural tints of his character.

Earnest, aggressive, sanguine, capable, laborious, his capacities and acquirements were forces that demonstrated his powers. It has been said by high authority, that if elsewhere, certainly in Philadelphia, her most

prominent citizens are best understood and appreciated after they are buried.

Franklin B. Gowen was born at Mount Airy, near Germantown, in the county of Philadelphia, February 9, 1836. He inherited some of the marked mental and moral traits of his father, whose life in Philadelphia demonstrated his striking individuality.

It can hardly be doubted that what is known as heredity is the outcome of the parents' characteristics in their descendants. Mr. Gowen's character in this respect may be judged by the recognized principles of pathognomy.

Yet in his social relations he was genial, agreeable and attractive. His acquirements rendered him notable in association with cultured and refined society. His information, belle lettres and scientific reading and the charm of his conversation were thoroughly appreciated by his personal friends and associates.

Mr. Gowen was, at an early age, sent to Emmetsburg, in the State of Maryland, to receive the instruction which made the college located there so eminent as an institution of learning.

After marked proficiency in his studies, he returned home and finished them at the Moravian School, at Litez, Lancaster county, Pa.

His youthful training was intended to qualify him for a business life. The first introduction to his proposed avocation was entering the store of Mr. Baumgardner, at Lancaster. Acquiring sufficient knowledge of the business, Mr. Baumgardner sent him to his iron furnace, at Shamokin. All this was prior to his majority, for at twenty years of age Mr. Gowen formed a partnership with a Mr. Turner, for the purpose of mining anthracite coal. This promised well, but in the monetary panic of 1857 the firm failed, with liabilities amounting to some $60,000. Mr. Gowen seems to have been disappointed in his business venture. He then studied law at Pottsville, Pa., with Mr. Benjamin W. Cumming. On the 31st of May, 1860, he was admitted to the bar of Schuylkill county.

To indicate the integrity and energy of Mr. Gowen, he paid in full the liabilities of the firm of Gowen & Turner. In 1862, Mr. Gowen was elected the District Attorney of Schuylkill county. His legal standing being assured, he continued to represent the pleas of the commonwealth in Schuylkill county until his increasing professional business required him to resign that office, and devote himself entirely to his private practice.

Mr. Gowen was the counsel of the Reading Railroad Company in 1864, and in 1867 it became necessary from the increase of his professional duties to remove to Philadelphia. He was then in the thirty-second year of his age. In 1869, Mr. Gowen was elected President of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company.

He reluctantly accepted the position at the request of a majority of the controlling interest in the company. From this period in his life, Mr. Gowen began a career burdened with great responsibilities. The large

interests which were involved in the management of this corporation are not easily to be described. It may be said, however, that the holders of the various securities of the company, and those who were engaged in providing the chief traffic of the road, were not usually unanimous in their agreements as to the conduct of its affairs.

From 1869 to 1884, he was President of the company. He then resigned, and in 1886 he was again elected President and served till 1888, when he again resigned.

It was well said of Mr. Gowen's Presidency, that it was "fifteen years of struggle and achievement."

Reference to Mr. Gowen's administration of the business and policy of the Reading Railroad is here out of place.

The interests involved were enormous and the contentions of the parties representing them were inspired by efforts to control the management vested in the executive authority of the company.

The President and the Board of Directors were subjected to the consequences of divergent views and opposing opinions of their constituents.

Mr. Gowen's responsibility was not divisible.

During his Presidency he met antagonisms, hostilities and obstacles that would most likely have overwhelmed a less courageous, able, self-poised and confident administrator. Criticism followed the course he pursued—severe criticism often—but patiently listening, ready to defend himself, he followed out his plans. His views were broad, far reaching and based on what, to his extraordinary comprehension of the vast possibilities of the Reading Railroad, were vital to the permanent triumph of the producing and transporting capacities of this coal-carrying company.

Securing coal fields by purchase, thus owning the sources of supply of freight for the support of the traffic and the augmentation of the earnings, and with the topographical advantages of his line of road, Mr. Gowen conceived that he could place the Reading Railroad beyond the reach of competing rivals.

This much is said in some sort to indicate the character and capacity of Mr. Gowen. And let it be proclaimed that during his management of the company, amid all the contentions it occasioned, in the direction of the policy he regarded as essential for the success, not a word was ever uttered that expressed a doubt as to his spotless integrity.

The Engineering and Mining Journal, of New York, a professional periodical of high standing, in an editorial reference to Mr. Gowen, thus epitomizes his character:

"Mr. Franklin B. Gowen was undoubtedly one of the most admirable men this country has produced. To brilliant ability, eloquence, undaunted courage and an incorruptible honesty which placed him, even with his bitterest antagonist, above the faintest suspicion of doing a dishonorable thing, Mr. Gowen united a winning personality that firmly attached to him all who had the honor and pleasure of his acquaintance.

"His devotion to duty was not lessened when it called for the risk of his life and fortune, and the administration of the immense interests of the Reading Railroad and Coal and Iron Companies was never influenced by his personal advantages, but was always and solely in that of his stockholders. A man of firm convictions and of utter and unconcealed abhorrence of dishonesty in every form, he naturally made many enemies as well as friends, but even his enmities were to his honor.

"Mr. Gowen was a firm and very enthusiastic believer in the immense value of our anthracite coal deposits, and he secured for the Reading Coal and Iron Company the most valuable mineral estate in the world. It is true much of it was purchased with bonds, and this involved an interest account so heavy as to have crippled his companies; but the policy of controlling this magnificent source of future profits, both for the coal company and for the railroad was, when exercised in moderation, a far-sighted and wise one. Mr. Gowen's sanguine temperament may have led him to a larger investment, in undeveloped lands, than was prudent, but there is no question of the immense value of the estate (which covers fully one-half of all the anthracite coal in Pennsylvania), that he purchased for his company, or the moderate cost of the same.

"In the council chamber he was an acute and profound legal adviser; at the bar a pleader of unsurpassed logical force and magnetic influence. Handsome, witty and eloquent, he was master alike of the rapier and the battle ax. After the glamour of his speech had passed away, there remained the convincing strength of his statement.

"These qualities, together with his fearless determination, found, perhaps, their highest exhibition in the victory which he won, at the end of more than three years of patient preparation, over the secret society of murderers which had so long maintained a reign of terror in the anthracite regions. If Mr. Gowen had never achieved anything else, this one performance would have entitled him to the gratitude of mankind."

Operating the coal mines that yielded profit to the railroad, employing large numbers of laborers, supplying the demand for their products, it came to pass that, by violations of law, life and property in the mining localities were put in peril. Arson and murder were committed by members of secret combinations of men in this coal region. Mr. Gowen undertook the suppression of this combination and the punishment of the guilty. He went before the legal authorities of Schuylkill county, indicted the leaders of the "*Molly Maguires*," as this combination was called, convicted them, and some were hanged and others imprisoned. The combination was destroyed and peace followed.

His ability as a lawyer could not be better tested. His personal courage could not have been better proved. Fidelity to public duty and the assertion of the obligation to society by one of its citizens have no nobler attestation.

Mr. Gowen's domestic life was hallowed by his unpretentious religious

principles, which were expressed in his communion with the Protestant Episcopal Church.

In his profession he was behind none of the leaders of the bar, for Mr. Gowen ranked among the great lawyers of the country.

His last, or among the latest of his professional achievements, was the decision (March 20, 1890), of the Supreme Court of Ohio, in the case of Rice against the railroads under the Inter-State Commerce Law.

Had Mr. Gowen been tempted by the inducements held out to him to enter political life, he would have attained the distinction of a statesman in that high order of men who made their mark in their time on our history. His extraordinary capacity for orally expressing his opinions, his command of language, his wonderful memory, not needing the aid of written notes to direct the course of his argument, the attraction of his manner and his personal presence would have established his position as an orator.

Less than is here said would have been an injustice to the memory of our lamented colleague. It is at best but a tentative effort, and when the color of the perspective round the prominent figure, which Mr. Gowen became in the circle of the physical scientists of his day, is mellowed by age, then his biography will be the just tribute to his phenomenal character.

Obituary Notice of Leo Lesquereux. By J. P. Lesley.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 21, 1890.)

The venerable botanist and palæo-botanist, Leo Lesquereux, of Fleurier, Switzerland, late of Columbus, Ohio, has been a member of this Society since his election, January 18, 1861. Born in 1806, and dying on the 20th of October, 1889, his long life was full of unusual adventures, and great discoveries.

When a boy, on one of his excursions to find new flowers, he fell from the top of the mountain which walls the Val de Travers on the north. Rolling and dropping from cliff to cliff, a descent of several hundred feet, he was found by his family hanging in the branches of a tree, mangled in every part of his body, and apparently dead ; but after lying insensible for several weeks, he recovered health and strength, and continued his boyish explorations as though nothing had happened. The place is in full view of his father's house in Fleurier, and is pointed to by the villagers as Lesquereux's cliff. Just below it to the right the Pontarlier Railway line from Neufchatel to Paris, leaves the Val de Travers and enters the gate-like gorge across which the Swiss stretched their iron chain to keep the marauding Burgundians in check.

This gorge is similar in its general features to that of our Lehigh river

from Mauch Chunk upward; a trench two thousand feet deep cut from north to south across one of the extensive limestone plateaus of the Jura range; the upper surface of the plateau being occupied partly by reclaimed farm lands and villages, and in part by unreclaimed peat bogs traversed by artificial drains, and quarried periodically for fuel. These peat bogs were the young botanist's favorite tramping grounds; and he got to know every safe and every dangerous spot on their treacherous surfaces. He made the acquaintance of every flower that grew on them and on the surrounding cliffs. He devised for himself an auger, like a flour inspector's, with an adjustable handle; and with this tool he investigated the character and structure of the bog, its stratification, the specific gravity of its different layers, the deformation of the sphagnum by pressure, and the rate of its growth. He was the first to determine the true causes and conditions of peat formation; unconsciously making the first step in the science of the geology of coal.

Going for his education to Neufchatel, his results were not accepted by the naturalists, until, a Cantonal Commission being appointed, Agassiz being one of the commissioners, he was permitted to demonstrate the subject on the surface of the bog itself; then his theory was accepted. I have in manuscript an autobiography of the earlier portions of his life, and his naïve expressions of satisfaction at this victorious defense of his young scientific work are very amusing. The whole of this manuscript, written for my pleasure three or four years ago, is well worth a place in the published Proceedings of this Society, and I am tempted to enrich from its store of racy details this poor sketch of his most noteworthy career.

When twenty-four years old (1830) he married the daughter of one of Goethe's intimate friends, General Von Wolffskeel, the Baroness Sophia of Eisenach. Three sons and a daughter of this most happy union survive him. His wife would tell how she used to sit on Goethe's knee, while the poet and her father conversed together. The account of his courtship and wedding given in the manuscript makes charming pictures of German life.

Lesquereux had been appointed to a chair in the College at La Chaux de Fonds. But his career as teacher of science was suddenly cut short by an illness which destroyed his hearing. He went for relief to Paris, but was treated by a noted oculist and aurist there with the brutal recklessness customary at that time in the medical profession of that metropolis, and which is not entirely unknown even at the present day. His eustachian tubes were burst, and an inflammation of the brain superinduced which threatened to destroy his sight. When he returned home he became stone deaf, and never heard a sound from that time to the day of his death. In despair he learned the trade of a chaser of the backs of watches, but gradually lost his health and courage and was long nursed by his devoted wife. Then the strength of her admirable character made itself known; for she practiced her husband's art, and supported the family herself, until he could resume his handicraft. Twelve years he engraved watches and

made and tempered watch-springs, a delicate process, the knowledge of which was hereditary in his family.

At the age of nearly forty his fame as a bryological botanist induced the King of Prussia to commission him to examine and report on the origin, growth, size, quality and condition of the peat bogs of that kingdom. Neufchatel the Canton still belonged to Prussia. He had been commissioned by the Cantonal government and had reported on the peat bogs of the Jura. Now he traversed the mountains of Germany, the shores of the North sea and Baltic, and after publishing his report at Geneva, examined the bogs of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, and if I mistake not some of those of Great Britain; but of this I am not sure; and still later those of Canada and the United States; taking into the range of his researches the Dismal Swamp of Virginia and North Carolina; and going out alone, unarmed and deaf, far over the prairies of the West, sleeping on the grass without covering, sometimes several nights in succession.

Lesquereux followed Agassiz, Desor, Guyot and Matile to America in 1848. He settled his family in Columbus, Ohio, where his sons began business on several thousand dollars' worth of watches loaned for this purpose by their father's friends, who took that method of enlarging their trade. Agassiz had promised him scientific employment, but was unable to carry into effect his friendly intentions. The family were at first in great distress; afterwards they prospered; and the father was able to devote the rest of his life to his adopted science. He was always poor; his work always poorly paid; but he was one of the wisest, most cheerful, and most contented of mortals. His modesty ran into self-depreciation; a sentiment sadly reinforced by the physical infirmity which cut him off from easy intercourse with his fellow-men, and made him not only unduly grateful for the salaries or fees which he received for work ordered, but unduly modest in the estimation which he placed upon his work. He reminded me of some gentle wild beast or bird living on the chance resources of nature, patient when he found but little, most thankful when he found anything. But a very noble independence was manifest in all his intercourse with others. His manners were simplicity and refinement embodied and illustrated. His considerateness was best shown by the restraints he imposed upon himself in conversation. His visits even to his best friends were rare and short. He made excuse that it must be a wearisome act of friendship to talk to a stone-deaf man. Yet he was a delightful interlocutor.

Only to those who grew accustomed to conversing with the lips alone did he feel quite free to hold intercourse. He read language by watching the movements of his friend's mouth. When introduced to a stranger, and usually when meeting one of his old friends, the first question was: "Will you speak in German, in French, or in English?" and according to the answer he prepared himself for the conversation. "Did you tell me that your friend Lesquereux was deaf?" said one to me one day. "Yes." "But how is that possible? I noticed him talking French in the most

animated manner with his friend just now, and he seemed to hear him as well as you or I could."

With those who wore beards it was more difficult, and he was obliged to beg a repetition of many sentences. But with most persons he carried on conversation in writing, always carrying tablets and pencils with him for that use. Experience had also taught him to gather up all the loose papers on which there were any sentences of the conversation, and throw them into the fire before he left the room, or tear them to pieces if in the open air. So expert was he in interpreting what was said to him, that he usually gathered the whole of a sentence by watching the first few words of it written. He seldom permitted the sentence to be finished. I suppose this quickness was not a mere consequence of his intellectual cultivation, but was one of the many necessities he felt for diminishing what he considered the burden which his infirmity laid on his interlocutors ; he was so delicately generous to others ; and making no distinction at all between the highest and lowest class of man.

Lesquereux took no part in politics. I think they did not interest him. His friend, Agassiz, was a born aristocrat. His friend, Desor, was a democrat of the most pronounced type, and continued to be one of the two most influential leaders of the Democratic party in the Canton, after the not bloodless revolution which made Neufchatel free of Prussia, until his death in 1886. But Lesquereux's letters to me through nearly thirty years scarcely mentioned the political situations on either side of the Atlantic ; with one exception ; he deeply sympathized with the preservation of the Union, and the emancipation of the slaves.

Lesquereux's religious opinions, if he had any, are unknown to me. But I have innumerable evidences in his letters that he entertained a very remarkable faith in an Overruling Providence, as fixed as it was simple. "I have known what it was to have no bread for my family," he writes in one of his letters, "but the good God has never forsaken me." I am reminded that I compared him to Heinrich Stilling, after reading one of his cheery pages, in reply to some desponding confidences of my own less sure faith. I am sure that not a complaining expression can be found in our long correspondence.

I first met Lesquereux in Schuylkill county, Pa., in the summer of 1851. Prof. H. D. Rogers was revising the Anthracite region for his Final Report. Desor, who had worked with Agassiz in Boston and on Lake Superior, had accepted an offer to study the surface deposits of Pennsylvania ; and Lesquereux, who was employed to provide a report on the Coal plants of the State, sat day after day on the Anthracite tip-heaps, collecting and classifying whatever the roof shales afforded him. His names, descriptions and figures were published seven years later (1858) in the Second Volume of the Geology of Pennsylvania.

His "Fossil Coal Flora of Arkansas" was published in 1860.

His "Fossil Coal Plants of Illinois" appeared in Worthen's Second and Fourth Volumes in 1866, 1880.

His "Tertiary Plants of Mississippi" appeared in Hilgard's Report of 1863.

His "Cretaceous Flora of the Dakota Group" appeared as a monograph in 1874, as a "Report of the U. S. Geol. and Geog. Survey of the Territories" under Dr. Hayden.

His monograph of the "Pliocene Flora of the Auriferous Gravel Deposits of the Sierra Nevada" appeared in 1875.

His "Tertiary Flora" as a monograph in 1878.

His "Cretaceous and Tertiary Flora" as a monograph in 1883.

"The Coal Flora of Pennsylvania and the United States," Report P of the series of geological reports of that State, Vols. i, ii in one, with an atlas in a separate volume, 1880, and Vol. iii, text and plates, 1884, was the fruit of his more or less continuous connection with the State Survey from 1875. He regarded it as the crowning labor of his life, and resumed into it all his knowledge of the flora of our coal measures. Another volume, in preparation at the time of his death, was intended to contain the figures and descriptions of about a hundred new species, some of them of exceptional beauty and interest; and many of which were founded on specimens in the rich private collection of his most intimate friend and fellow-worker, Mr. R. D. Lacoe, of Pittston, Pa., who looked much after the old man's comfort, and frequently entertained him as his guest for days and weeks together, most of the time being spent in examining, comparing and discussing doubtful species and new discoveries.

For his comparisons of foreign species, his three principal correspondents were Schimper of Strasburg, Heer of Zurich, and Count Saporta. Schimper was one of his earliest intimates in botany and he was never willing to consider a question settled until after letter after letter had passed between them. His American studies of the Cretaceous and Tertiary floras of America supplied copious and constant food for botanical correspondence with Heer.

In the earlier years of his residence in the State of Ohio he was employed by Mr. W. S. Sullivant, a wealthy citizen of Cincinnati, a bryologist given to the study of mosses, and assisted him in the publication of many new species. This brought him into intimate correspondence with the well-known bryologist of Philadelphia, Mr. Thomas P. James, a member and officer of this Society. After Mr. James left Philadelphia to reside in Cambridge, Mass., Mr. Lesquereux's botanical intercourse with him was constant and fruitful, and much of the value of the "Manual of the Mosses of N. America," published in their respective names, was due to the zeal with which he thus kept alive those earliest studies of his life. Another of his closest friends was the veteran professor of botany at Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., Thomas C. Porter, who has some amusing anecdotes to tell of their adventures among the rare plants surviving on the banks of the Delaware.

Lesquereux was elected a member of this Society January 18, 1861, and of the National Academy of Sciences in 1864, the year following its consti-

tution by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States; but his deafness excused him from attendance at the meetings, and his membership was understood to be in honorable testimony to his character. Many other learned bodies in Europe and America also placed his famous name on their lists; among these the Geological Societies of London and Brussels made him a corresponding member; and he continued to be accounted by his *Alma Mater*, the Academy of Neufchatel, one of its honorary professors.

Lesquereux did not attempt further field work after 1884. He was then 78 years old. The last five years of his life were passed in quiet retirement in his cottage on the edge of Columbus, at which books, monograph pamphlets, and specimens of fossil plates for identification or description were constantly arriving from old correspondents and fresh young workers. He began to lament the widowed loneliness and failing brain-power of old age, and predicted his own death from spring to spring. But his strength held out until the end of the summer of last year, after which he existed in an almost insensible condition, and in a few weeks peacefully ceased to breathe.

Description of a New Species of Pteropus. By Harrison Allen.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 21, 1890.

PTEROPUS LANIGERA, sp. nov.

Crown covered with dark gray, unicolored hair. The hairs between the eyes are directed backward, but over the rest of the crown are erect. Face everywhere hairy. In front and below the eye the hair is thicker than elsewhere. On the cheeks and lips the hair is directed downward, while on the horizontal ramus of the lower jaw it is directed backward. The region of the whisker is composed of long, woolly hair of the same nature as that of the crown but of an obscure brown shade, and extends like a collar to the neck. The under surface of the head, therefore, unusually full and woolly. The space between the rami to a point a short distance back of the rictus is of a dark brown.

The side of the neck covered with long, brown, unicolored hair, the same color passing more to the front of the neck than to the back where the shade is of a gray tinge. The base of the prebrachium ventrally is covered with long, woolly hair as on the side of the neck.

The side of trunk with long, silky, unicolored brown hair, the front the same with ashy tips. The middle of the chest is remarkable for exhibiting a pure gray-white spot the size of an almond. In one specimen the hair of the spot is unicolored, and in the other it retains a black-brown base. The infraanal region is the same as the front and conceals the interfemoral membrane.

The back of the trunk measures 35 mm. across, and is covered with dark-brown hair with ashy tips. It becomes more woolly and brown at the rump. Hair of the same texture extends a little beyond the knees on the dorsal surface of the posterior extremities, but is entirely absent from the front. With the exception of a few hairs on the flexor surface of the forearm near the elbow the membranes are naked. Ears a little longer than the muzzle, naked (save a few hairs at the base), ovate, nowhere emarginate.

Palatal rugæ between the molars but four in number.

Skull.—Ecto-pterygoid process with trenchant laminated pedicle which reaches to the anterior margin of the undivided foramen ovale. Post-glenoid process in height equals one-third the anterior and posterior measurement of the glenoid cavity; zygomatic arch curved above the level of the optic foramen.* The sagittal crest elevated, entire. An orbito-frontal foramen lies behind the postorbital process. Frontal bone with scarcely any inflation at the inner border of the orbit and on the vertex.

The maxilla as it lies in the orbit is marked by a tuberosity placed to the median side of the groove which leads to the infraorbital canal. The median border of condyloid process is flat, thin, not robust.

Teeth.—Maxillary incisors not touching; they possess well-defined posterior cingules. The incisorial series but slightly arched. The lateral incisors larger than the centrals and grooved anteriorly. The first premolar in contact with the second. The second premolar with a well-defined palatal cusp. The second molar one-third the length of the first which lies in line with the infraorbital canal and not under the root of the zygomatic process.

The mandibular incisors scarcely separated. The lateral incisors larger than the central but moderately raised above their level. The first premolar larger than the maxillary or mandibular last molar. It almost occupies the interval between the canine and the second premolar. The second premolar with conspicuous lingual cusp.

The maxillary canine on the right side with a rudiment of a postero-lateral cuspule. The maxillary second premolar shows a similar rudiment on the external cusp much the same as in *P. keraudrenii*. The teeth of the left side of the maxilla and those of the mandible are without these rudiments. No antero-basal projection present on the maxillary third premolar.

This species is most closely allied to *P. phæocephalus*. Like it it belongs to the same group of the genus with *P. keraudrenii* and *P. molossinus*. The latter species I have not seen. *P. keraudrenii* is a larger species and quite differently colored. *P. molossinus* agrees closely in size, but differs in distribution and color of the fur. The other species which resemble it in size are *P. rubricollis*, *P. temminckii*, and *P. personatus*.

* By this expression is meant that when the skull is viewed in profile the zygomatic process lies above the plane of the optic foramen.

Measurements.

Length of head and body	180	mm.
" head	43	"
" thumb	40	"
" second m. c.	47	"
" third "	67	"
" fourth "	67	"
" fifth "	73	"
" forearm	98	"
" tibia	48	"

Habitat, Samoa islands. Type in Ward's Nat. Hist. Establishment, Rochester, New York.*

Description of a New Species of Macrotus. By Harrison Allen.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 21, 1890.)

In Article xvi, extracted from "The Bulletin of the Am. Mus. Nat. Hist.," Vol. ii, No. 3, p. 166, entitled "Notes on a Collection of Mammals from Southern Mexico," by Mr. J. A. Allen, occurs the following statement: "Macrotus Californicus, *Baird.*—Eight skins and skulls, and three additional skulls, all males. Bolanos, Jalisco, July 3, 1889. 'Occurs in immense numbers in the adits and old mine drifts of the Mineral de Bolanos. Of the fourteen captured all were males, whereas in the case of the other kinds of bats taken here females generally predominate' (Audley Buller, MS. notes).

"In the absence of specimens for comparison, it is difficult to say certainly, whether they are the same as the California specimens. Judging by descriptions, they are somewhat darker in color."

I had an opportunity, through the courtesy of Mr. J. A. Allen, of examining two of the specimens of this series, and concurred with Mr. Allen in identifying them as *M. californicus.* The skins were of immature individuals and the parts about the auricle apparently mutilated. The dark cinereous tips of the hair, while in striking contrast with the more northern form of the species, was not thought to be distinctive, since southern variations of other species, as *Artibeus perspicillatus* and *Atalapha noveboracensis*, are known to be differently colored from the northern. The main measurements were the same. But since Mr. Allen published his notes I have carefully soaked one of the skins in dilute spirits and have detected that the apparent mutilations of the auricle were due to distortion, and that the form of the auricle was sufficiently pronounced to warrant a careful examination of the cranium. In response to my request

I am indebted to Mr. F. A. Ward for an opportunity of examining this interesting form.

Mr. Allen sent to me eight crania for inspection. The characters of these specimens are in many respects quite different from those of *M. californicus*. I have therefore concluded to describe the Mexican species as new in the following language:

MACROTUS BULLERI, sp. nov.

Auricle scarcely longer than head; the internal basal lobule rudimental and projects about a millimetre beyond the juncture of the interauricular membrane. External basal lobe reduced to a thin ridge which leaves the tragus exposed. Tragus with convex anterior border for basal two-thirds, and an abruptly acuminate apical third. The outer border is straight—apparently without basal notch or lobule.

The nose-leaf without well-defined lower border—scarcely longer than the face. Chin apparently without divided plate.

Skull.—Facial region without depression on the frontal bone; indeed, it is faintly ridged posteriorly; region over ethmoid scrolls scarcely inflated. Squamosal portion of zygoma not more than one-half the size of the same part in *M. californicus*. No projection of vertex at occiput, but the entire superior curvature of the head simple. Angle of mandible projects scarcely at all back of the condyloid surface. The two halves of the mandible closer together than in *M. californicus*.

Fur.—On the back the basal two-third is white, the apical third very dark plumbeous, the tip tending to gray. These distinctions are best defined on the sides of the neck. At the middle of the back the gray tip is absent. The colors undergo no variation over the posterior surface of the prebrachium, the humerus, or the rump. On the endo-patagium the hairs are shorter, sparsely developed, and of a fawn color throughout.

On the ventre a disposition exists for the basal two-thirds of the hair to be whiter than the rest of the hair. This is most marked on the sides of the trunk, and is nearly absent from the middle. The apical third is less markedly plumbeous and the tip is more gray than on the back. On the whole the ventre gives the impression of being gray, and the back as being of a dark, sooty hue.

Two immature examples (the distal epiphyses of the metacarpal bones of the third, a fourth, and fifth, manal digits ununited), 2004, 2005 (Am. Mus., N. Y.), from Bolanos, Jalisco, Mexico.

Measurements.

Height of auricle from vertex		7 mm.
" tragus (slightly distorted)		6 "
" nose-leaf		7 "
Length of forearm		44 "
1st digit	m. c.	4 "
	first phalanx	4 "
	second "	2 "
2d digit	m. c.	45 "
	first phalanx	5 "

Measurements.

3d digit...	m c	32	mm.
	first phalanx	15	"
	second "	15	"
	third "	9	"
	fourth "	4	"
4th digit..	m. c	31	"
	first phalanx	14	"
	second "	11	"
	third "	½	"
5th digit..	m. c	33	"
	first phalanx	14	"
	second "	10	"
	third "	1	"
Length of	femur	15	"
"	tibia	16	"
"	foot	13	"
"	tail	25	"
"	free portion of tail	3½	"

Notices of New Fresh-water Infusoria.

By Alfred C. Stokes, M.D.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, April 18, 1890.*)

Mastigamœba reptans, sp. nov. Figs. 1–5.—Body constantly amœboid, at its apparently greatest extension ovate, depressed, about two and one-half times as long as broad, the pseudopodia few, scattered, lobate, short and unbranched, progression being chiefly by the amœboid expansions of the body; flagellum apical, about three times as long as the extended zooid, only the tip usually vibrating; nucleus not observed; contractile vesicles several, small, scattered; motion commonly very slow, occasionally rapidly and irregularly vibratory. Length of the extended body $\frac{1}{1800}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water with decaying vegetation.

Heteromita fusiformis, sp. nov. Figs. 6 and 7.—Body elongate fusiform, from three to four times as long as broad, widest centrally, tapering thence to both extremities; soft and changeable in shape, having the ability to protrude filamentous pseudopodic prolongations of the body substance, the extremities of these extensions not rarely becoming amœboid and producing a reticulation by the interlacing of the minute branches or by the formation of minute vacuoles; flagella diverse in length, originating close together at the frontal extremity, the anterior one vibratile, less than twice as long as the body, the other trailing and more than twice the body in length; contractile vesicle small, apparently

single, situated in the posterior body-half; endoplasm finely granular. Length of body $\frac{1}{1500}$ inch. Hab.—Standing pond water. Movements rapidly vibratory.

Heteromita triangularis, sp. nov. Fig. 8.—Body ovate or subtriangular, depressed, smooth, twice as long as broad, the anterior border obliquely truncate, sometimes slightly concave, the shorter lateral border often flattened; the longer convex; posterior extremity obtusely pointed; anterior flagellum about one-half as long as the body, the posterior or trailing appendage from two to three times the length of the zooid; contractile vesicle single, posteriorly situated near the longer lateral border; nucleus apparently represented by a small light spot near the centre of the anterior body-half. Length of body from $\frac{1}{4500}$ to $\frac{1}{3000}$ inch. Hab.—Standing pond water.

Food seems to be engulfed chiefly near the anterior extremity, this region surrounding the particle by an irregular outflow of endoplasm, the zooid then becoming indescribably unsymmetrical in form. The anal aperture is postero-terminal or nearly so.

Macromastix (μάκρος, long; μάστιξ, lash), gen. nov.—Animalcules free swimming, ovate, having three flagella arising near together, one short, antero-terminal and vibratile, two opposite, lateral and trailing; food engulfed at any point on the surface. Inhabiting standing water.

Macromastix lapsa, sp. nov. Figs. 9 and 10.—Body ovate, about twice as long as broad, the anterior region changeable in shape, that margin rounded and often obliquely truncate, the posterior obtusely pointed; anterior flagellum short, arising from the centre of the anterior truncation, the lateral appendages trailing, about three times as long as the body; endoplasm colorless, transparent; contractile vesicle single, laterally placed near the body centre; nucleus not observed. Length $\frac{1}{4500}$ inch. Hab.—Standing pond water.

This form is a member of the Trimastigidæ of Saville Kent, and resembles most nearly the *Dallingeria* of the same authority, differing chiefly in the diverse length of the flagella, these appendages in *Dallingeria* being subequal. The lateral flagella of *Macromastix* arise from opposite points nearer the frontal border than do the similar appendages of *Dallingeria*, in the last named form arising from the lateral borders at some distance from the frontal margin, and possessing adhesive power in the distal extremities, nothing of the kind having been observed with the present form. Food is engulfed at any point of the surface.

Trachelomonas cervicula, sp. nov. Fig. 11.—Lorica subspherical, smooth, orange yellow in color; anterior orifice with a thickened, slightly projecting external border, and produced internally as a straight, cylindrical, chitinous tube about one-third as long as the diameter of the lorica, its anterior border attached around the anterior orifice of the sheath, its posterior or internal margin circular and free, the long flagellum of the enclosed animalcule protruded through this internal, tubular passage, and the body, when completely filling the lorica, surrounding the cylinder as if pierced by it. Diameter of the lorica $\frac{1}{1125}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water.

The species differs from all other known forms by the presence of the internal tubular prolongation. It was collected in some abundance from a sheltered pond in the early part of February, 1890. It is, therefore, probably a vernal Infusorian.

Trachelomonas similis, sp. nov. Fig. 12.—Lorica oval or subelliptical, nearly twice as long as broad, the extremities subequally rounded, the surface irregularly and finely punctate, the aperture produced as an obliquely directed neck-like prolongation, the margin oblique and irregularly denticulate; color chestnut brown. Length of lorica $\frac{1}{900}$ inch. Hab.—Standing pond water, with aquatic plants.

This approaches most nearly the *T. lagenella* (Ehr.) Stein, which is described as colorless and entirely smooth, neither of which conditions are observable in the present form.

Trachelomonas obovata, sp. nov. Fig. 13.—Lorica obovate, less than twice as long as broad, the anterior border convexly truncate, the posterior obtusely pointed; surface minutely hispid, aperture slightly projecting, its margin rather more coarsely hispid; color deep chestnut brown; flagella twice or more as long as the lorica. Length of lorica $\frac{1}{1125}$ inch. Hab.—Standing water from the pools of early spring.

Trachelomonas spinosa, sp. nov. Fig. 14.—Lorica oval, about one and one-third times as long as broad, both extremities equally and evenly rounded, the entire surface clothed with slightly recurved spines, which are largest at the posterior border; the anterior aperture produced as a short, smooth, truncate extension; color brown. Length, exclusive of the spinous processes, $\frac{1}{600}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water, with aquatic plants.

Epipyxis socialis, sp. nov. Fig. 15.—Lorica elongate subcylindrical, from eight to ten times as long as broad, often variously curved and bent, the lateral borders nearly parallel, tapering posteriorly to the subacute point of attachment, the anterior border truncate, usually not everted, sometimes slightly flaring. Length of lorica $\frac{1}{600}$ to $\frac{1}{550}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water in early spring; attached to Confervæ. Social, occasionally forming radiating, rosette-like clusters composed of fifty or more thecæ, or in irregular fascicles produced by the attachment of from eight to ten loricæ to a single supporting theca.

The colonies formed by the attachment of one or more loricæ to a single theca as a basis of support, would seem to foreshadow the polythecium or compound branching colony of *Dinobryon*, to which *Epipyxis* is closely allied. Groups not rarely occur formed of from eight to ten thecæ basally attached to one and the same supporting lorica.

Epipyxis eurystoma, sp. nov. Fig. 16.—Lorica elongate-vasiform, about three times as long as broad, widest at the anterior aperture, that orifice flaring, constricted near the anterior border, widening subcentrally and thence tapering to the subacute posterior point of attachment. Length of lorica from $\frac{1}{900}$ to $\frac{1}{1000}$ inch. Pond water, attached to various aquatic plants.

Cryptoglena alata, sp. nov. Fig. 17.—Lorica obovate, colorless, less than twice as long as broad, the anterior region widest, the frontal border

obliquely truncate; the lateral margins thinned and projecting beyond the borders of the enclosed animalcule in a wing-like manner, the borders somewhat curved in opposite directions as seen when the Infusorian is examined "end on," or with the anterior or posterior region presenting upward; posterior border narrowed, obtusely rounded; the dorsal and ventral aspects apparently encircled by a shallow transverse groove or depression, at times two; anterior orifice circular, its walls comparatively thick, the two vibratile flagella passing out close to the lateral margins; enclosed body elongate ovate, granular. Length of lorica $\frac{1}{1000}$ inch; greatest width $\frac{1}{1800}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water in early spring.

Furcilla, gen. nov.—Animalcules persistent in shape, free-swimming, the anterior border rounded or minutely and centrally pointed, the posterior extremity bifid, the bifurcation remote or approximate; flagella two, subequal, arising close together from the anterior apex.

The position of this newly instituted genus in a scheme of classification would probably be in the Heteromonadidæ of Bütschli, Goniomonas of Stein and the Amphimonas of Dujardin, having its affinities closer to those of the former than of the latter. Although the single known species of the genius was exceedingly abundant in the infusion, I have not seen the oral aperture in any, neither have I seen any in the act of taking food, nor observed any whose endoplasm contained colored granules or other presumable food particles. I therefore assume, on these negative grounds alone, that the genus should be classed among the Flagellata-Pantostomata of Saville Kent.

Furcilla lobosa, sp. nov. Figs. 18-21.—Body more or less ovate, less than twice as long as broad, or in dorsal and ventral view somewhat horse-shoe-shaped, the posterior region bifid, the bifurcation forming about one-half the entire length of the body, straight, somewhat divergent or slightly and inwardly curved, tapering and their extremities obtusely rounded; anterior border convex, with a slight central acumination from which arises the two subequal, vibratile flagella; the lateral borders bearing two rounded lobules or conspicuous protuberances, one on each side, oppositely placed and alternating with the elongated furcated region, the body in transverse optic section presenting an unequally quadrilobate outline, but in lateral view more or less ovate with two opposite, lateral, obtusely rounded wing-like projections or protuberances; flagella exceeding the body in length; contractile vesicle double, near the centre of the frontal border; nucleus single, located anteriorly near one lateral margin; endoplasm granular. Length $\frac{1}{2250}$ to $\frac{1}{1500}$ inch. Hab. A vegetable infusion of decaying Algæ and aquatic plants. Movements rotatory and tremulous.

The body, as far as the prolongation and two lateral protuberances are concerned, is somewhat variable. The latter are, at times, so obscurely developed and are apparently so nearly merged into the anterior body-half that the region becomes subglobose. The posterior prolongations vary in curvature, in their distance apart, and somewhat in their extremities, being at times rounded, at others subacute. The varying direction of

the furcation is such that they may slightly diverge, or be so closely approximated that their inner borders are almost in contact and broadly obovate in outline.

Lagenophrys bipartita, sp. nov. Fig. 22.—Lorica subhemispherical, depressed; dorsal surface rounded, ventral flattened, and surrounded horizontally by a depression that gives the adherent margin a projecting aspect as if bordered by a narrow rim, an internal membrane extending as a floor across the lorica at the position of the encircling constriction and dividing it into two unequal parts; posterior border irregularly crenate, the surface obliquely striate or ridged; the anterior valvular aperture small, the valves acuminate. Diameter of the lorica $\frac{1}{280}$ inch. Hab.—Ectoparasitic on *Daphnia*.

This was taken abundantly adherent on the entomostracon mentioned, being observed in a gathering made on January 19, 1890. The winter had been an exceptionally mild one, and this collection resembled collections made in the early spring in the abundance, variety and activity of their microscopic life. Even the entomostraca were burdened by their usual load of infusorial parasites.

This is the only member of the genus in which a dividing membrane has been observed above the region adherent to the supporting object, and acting as a floor on which rests the soft body of the enclosed animalcule. This floor-like structure exists, and is readily demonstrated if the lorica can be detached uninjured from the host, as the writer has several times had the opportunity to do. The enclosed zooid seems to rest on this floor-like partition, being of course adherent at the anterior valvular orifice, as is commonly the structural arrangement with all the observed species. The projecting basal rim has a tendency to become brown, as is so frequently observed in many infusorial loricæ, and its surface is irregularly crenulate. With advanced age it probably changes color entirely.

Podophrya pusilla, sp. nov. Fig. 23.—Body subspherical, pedicle comparatively stout, its length equaling about one-half the diameter of the body; tentacles from twelve to fourteen, irregularly distributed, distinctly capitate, often twice as long as the diameter of the body; contractile vesicle apparently single, situated near the centre of the frontal border: nucleus obscure, apparently subspherical; endoplasm usually finely granular. Diameter of the body $\frac{1}{1930}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water, attached to various aquatic weeds.

Solenophrya oblonga, sp. nov. Fig. 24.—Lorica oblong, very much compressed, less than three times as long as broad, often tapering posteriorly, the lateral borders nearly straight, the posterior margin rounded or somewhat flattened, seemingly by the pressure of the supporting object; anterior margins somewhat convex, not continuous but separated by a narrow interval, the lateral borders enlarged and rounded; tentacles in two antero-lateral fascicles, capitate; contractile vesicle single, small, located near the anterior border; nucleus ovate, slightly curved, placed subcentrally near one lateral border; endoplasm granular, almost entirely

filling the cavity of the lorica. Length $\frac{1}{440}$ inch. Hab.—Standing pond water, attached to the rootlets of aquatic plants.

Solenophrya alata, sp. nov. Fig.25.—Lorica, when viewed laterally, irregularly ovate, depressed, longitudinally traversed by five broad, thin, equidistant, perpendicular and anteriorly converging alæ, their free margins irregularly undulate, and their height varying, usually being greatest near their centre; posterior border evenly convex, the anterior narrowly concave and alate. Lorica when viewed from above pentagonal, a longitudinally disposed ala originating from each angle, converging anteriorly and meeting at the summit of the sheath which is apparently continuous across the frontal region; enclosed animalcule almost entirely filling the cavity of the lorica, the tentacles capitate, protruding through the alæ; endoplasm granular; nucleus obscure, apparently ovate and subcentrally located; contractile vesicle single, posteriorly placed near one border. Diameter of the lorica $\frac{1}{530}$ inch, height $\frac{1}{500}$ inch; length of each of the five sides $\frac{1}{818}$ inch. Hab.—Attached to the rootlets of *Lemna*.

Apgaria purpurascens, sp. nov.—Body elongate ovate, longitudinally furrowed, anteriorly flattened, in general outline and aspect resembling *A. elongata*; endoplasm deep reddish purple in color; nucleus double, ovate, the nodules situated in the posterior and the anterior body-halves respectively, and connected by a funiculus; contractile vesicle double, located near the posterior extremity. Length of mature forms $\frac{1}{150}$ inch, the length being from three to four times the width. Hab.—Pond water, and on the lower surface of water-lily leaves, near Minneapolis, Minn.

This beautiful and interesting form was originally discovered by Dr. P. L. Hatch, of Minneapolis, where it was abundant, and specimens were kindly sent to me. From *A. elongata*, which it resembles in general contour, it differs widely in three important particulars: the remarkable deep purplish-pink color of the parenchyma, in the double nucleus with a funiculus connecting the nodules, and in the great size. *A. elongata*, the most nearly related species, is colorless, it has but a single nucleus, and is in size only about $\frac{1}{800}$ inch in length. Reproduction with the form here referred to as *Apgaria purpurascens* takes place by transverse, often somewhat oblique, fission.

Homalozoon (ὁμαλος, flat; ξωον, body), gen. nov.—Animalcules free-swimming, hypotrichous, soft, flexible and elastic; elongate, much depressed, the anterior border obliquely rounded, thickened and abundantly supplied with trichocysts; oral aperture terminal, very expansile; no differentiated neck-like prolongation; ventral surface flattened, entirely ciliated.

In the *Annals and Magazine of Natural History* for August, 1887, the writer described an Infusorian under the name of *Litonotus vermicularis*, relegating it to that generic group with much doubt and hesitation. In the *Journal of the Trenton Natural History Society* for January, 1888, the diagnosis is republished without comments, and without any expression of that doubt as to its proper position which was still felt by the writer. Recently another Infusorian closely related to the one here referred to, but differing from it specifically, has confirmed the opinion that the former

must, with the latter, be denied admission into the genus *Litonotus*, and perhaps into the family Litonotidæ. The forms differ from the typical *Litonotus* in the absence of the neck-like prolongation, in the absence of the rounded and often conspicuously elevated dorsum, and especially in the position of the oral aperture, which in *Litonotus* is ventrally situated near the base of the neck, while in *Homalozoon* it is exactly apical and terminal. The Infusorian therefore formerly described by the writer under the name of *Litonotus vermicularis* is here transferred to the generic group now proposed for the reception of the two allied forms.

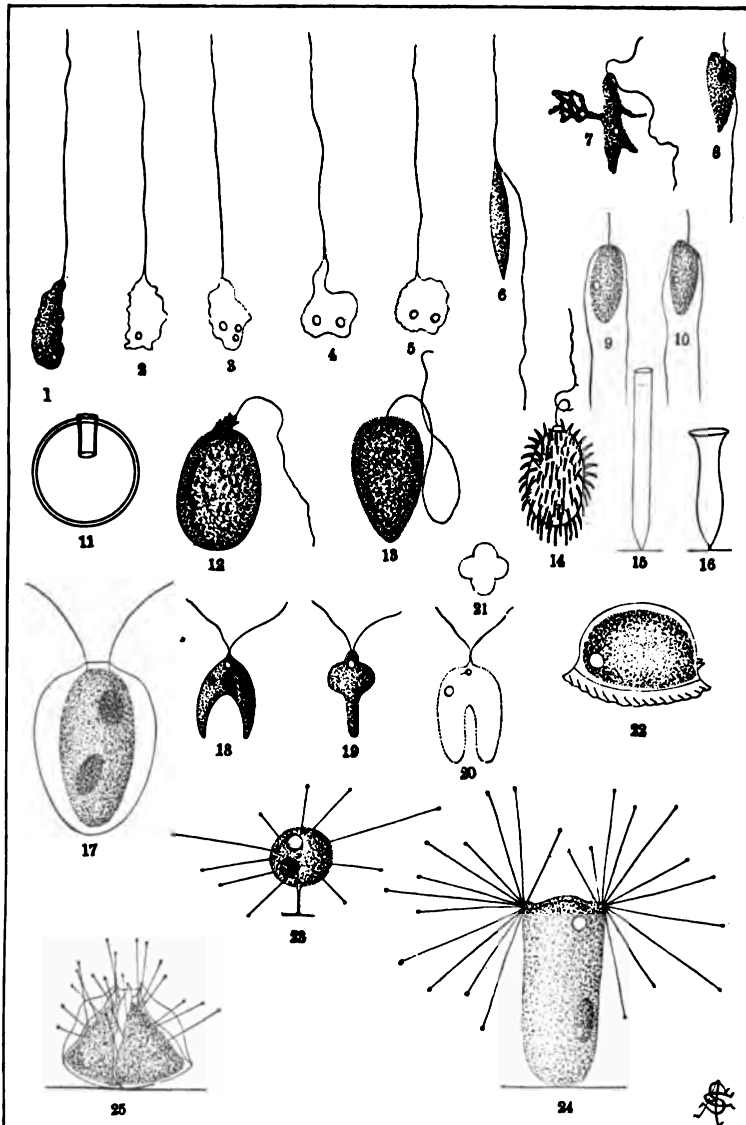
Homalozoon vermiculare, Stokes.—*Litonotus vermicularis*, Stokes, *Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist.*, Aug., 1887; *Journ. Trenton Nat. Hist. Soc.*, Jan., 1888.

Homalozoon flexile, sp. nov.—Body elongate, from twelve to fifteen times as long as broad, widest centrally, tapering to the obtusely pointed posterior extremity, and to a slight anterior constriction beneath the thickened and obliquely rounded frontal border; cilia short and fine, arranged in longitudinal lines on the flattened ventral surface; dorsal aspect bearing numerous, minute, hispid setæ; trichocysts within the frontal extremity abundant and conspicuous, a few scattered throughout the anterior region; contractile vesicles from twelve to fifteen, arranged in a series near one lateral border; nucleus long, narrow, band-like, variously curved; endoplasm usually granular. Length of body $\frac{1}{185}$ to $\frac{1}{140}$ inch. Hab.—Pond water, with aquatic plants.

This resembles *Homalozoon vermiculare* in contour, but differs in size, in the number of contractile vesicles, and especially in the form of the nucleus and the absence of a keel-like ridge traversing the dorsal aspect.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATE.

Fig. 1 to 5. Various forms assumed by Mastigamœba reptans.
" 6. Heteromita fusiformis.
" 7. " " with amœboid protrusions.
" 8. Heteromita triangularis.
" 9 and 10. Two forms of Macromastix lapsa.
" 11. Trachelomonas cervicula. An empty lorica.
" 12. Trachelomonas similis.
" 13. Trachelomonas obovata.
" 14. Trachelomonas spinosa.
" 15. Epipyxis eurystoma. An empty lorica.
" 16. Epipyxis socialis. An empty lorica.
" 17. Cryptoglena alata.
" 18. Furcilla lobosa.
" 19. " " lateral view.
" 20. " " a variety.
" 21. " " transverse optic section; diagram.
" 22. Lagenophrys bipartita.
" 23. Podophrya pusilla.
" 24. Solenophrya oblonga.
" 25. Solenophrya alata.



Fresh-water Infusoria.—Stokes.

The Asiatic Affinities of the Malay Language.

By C. Staniland Wake.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, April 18, 1890.)

The existence of a connection between the language of the Malagasy and that of the Malays is so evident that all matters relating to the latter people are of importance, as bearing on the question of the origin of the natives of Madagascar.

The Malays would seem to be first mentioned in the Chinese annals, which refer to the existence, between the years 618 and 939 of our era, of eighteen small States, probably Shan, in Further India, *north of the country of the Malays.* The Shans, to whom the Siamese are closely allied, were therefore preceded in that region by not only the Burmese, who are probably related to the Naga tribes, but also the allied Chams and Malays, whose affinities would be rather with the Mongolian peoples of India, now represented by the Kolarian tribes. This view is evidently supported by the statement of M. Vivien de Saint-Martin that there is a general and primitive relationship between the "innumerable ramifications of the non-Aryan race of India and Indo-China." The Rev. Dr. Mason and other writers have found a similarity between the language of the Môn of Tegu and that of the Mundakols of Chutia Nagpur, and Dr. Latham states that the Malay language is connected with the Môn, and therefore also with the Kolarian dialects of India. He associates with them, as belonging to the same group, the language of Cambodia. Mr. Cust agrees in allowing a relationship between Môn and Cambodian, but he classes the Malay language as a distinct family. Prof. A. H. Keane affirms, on the other hand, that the Khmer of Cambodia has nothing in common with the Kolarian except a few verbal resemblances through the Talaing, and that the Malay is "unmixed in structure and fundamentally related to the Cambodian." If we test these statements by reference to the numerals of those languages, we find that the Khmer differs from Malay and agrees with the Kolarian dialects. This is shown by the following table:

	Khmer.	Kolarian.			Malay.
		Talaing.	Hos.	Sontal.	
1.	muy	mooa	mi.	mia	satu
2.	pir	ba	bara	baria	dua
3.	bey	pee	apia	pia	tiga
4.	buon	paun	apania	ponia	ampat

The Malay numeral *ampat*, four, is probably derived from the Kolarian, but some of the others are evidently of Dravidian origin. This is true doubtless of *satu*, one, which appears to be connected with Brahui *asit*, one, in Dravidian *or-u*, the r and s being interchangeable. The Malay numerals *dalapan*, eight, *sambilan*, nine, and *sapula*, ten, are certainly connected with the Dravidian. Dr. Caldwell remarks* that the classical Tamil grammars teach that *pattu*, ten, may in certain connections be written *pahdu*, from *pag-u*, to divide, which corresponds to *pagudi*, classical Tamil *pâl*, a division. Thus the ancient Tamil *orupukadu* is *oru pahdu*, one ten. We have here the explanation of the Malay *sapula*, which likewise means "one ten," the word *pula* being evidently connected with the Dravidian numeral. The Malay word *sambilan*, nine, has a similar explanation. Dr. Caldwell explains the Tamil *onbadu*, nine, in Malayalam *ombadu*, as compounded of the ordinary Dravidian *or*, one, and *padu*, ten, and as having the meaning of "one from ten." The Malay *sambilan* has the same sense, and is compounded of *sa(m)*, one, and *pula* (bilan), ten. Dr. Caldwell applies to the Dravidian numerals the rule "characteristic of the Scythian languages," that they "use for eight and nine compounds which signify ten minus two and ten minus one." This rule applies, as we have seen, to the Malay numeral nine, and it does so also to *eight*. Thus *dalapan* is compounded of *dua*, two, and *pula*, ten ; as in Telugu *enimidi*, ten, meaning "two from ten," is formed of *eni*, two, and *midi*, which is really identical with *padi*, ten.

Prof. Keane refers to the Indo-Pacific numerals as common elements in the Malay and Polynesian languages ; he points out that in the Samoan *sefalu*, ten, we have a reduplication of the "enunciative particle," "the expression being really equivalent to *sa-sa-falu*, 'a one-ten.'" He says further that "the needless repetition shows that the original sense has long been lost : a further proof of the vast antiquity and independence of the Sawaiori [Polynesian] tongues." Prof. Keane adds that as the "common elements in the Indo-Pacific languages are organic and not borrowed," these languages "form a linguistic family in the same sense that the Aryan or Semitic are linguistic families." The evident connection between the Malay and the Dravidian numerals throws doubt, however, on that conclusion. Prof. Keane refers also to the Polynesian word for five, *lima*, which he supposes to have originally meant hand, as it still usually does, and he states that " this meaning is lost in Malay, Javanese, Malagasy, etc., where *lima*, retained as a numeral, has been replaced in the sense of hand by *tanghan*, *tahan*, etc." So far, however, from the Malay having exchanged *lima* for *tanghan*, the probability is that it never used the former word in the sense of "hand ;" as *tanghan* or an allied form is thus used by the Asiatic peoples to whom the Malays are most closely related. This view is not inconsistent with the remarks on the numeral "five" in the Dravidian languages made by Dr. Caldwell, who suggests that it might be derived from *kei*, in Tamil a hand. Probably

* Grammar of the Dravidian Languages, p. 248, 1875.

the Dravidian word for hand, in Gond *kaik*, as well as the numeral five, *saighan* in Gond, and the Malay *tanghan* are derived from a common root meaning "hand." It is noticeable that in Samoan the word *lima* is not used in speaking of a chief's hand. This is *'a 'ao*, in other Polynesian dialects *kukao*, which is the original form, and is evidently allied to the words just referred to. The origin of the word *lima* is probably to be sought in the languages of Cochin China, in which the numeral five is *naru* or *laru*, unless it is derived from the Shan dialects, which have the word *mu* or *mi* for "hand." The Malay would seem to have taken its numerals "two" and "three" from the same source as that to which it was indebted for the word *tanghan*. In the Tungus languages "five" is *tonga*, or a slightly differing form of this word, and in the same languages we have *dzur, dzhoua, dyul, dyur* for "two," and *ela, gilang, ilan* for "three," answering to the Malay *dua* and *tiga*, which in Polynesian become *lua* and *tolu*.

The consideration of the numeral systems of the Malay and Cambodian does not support the conclusion that these languages are of the same family. Prof. Keane refers, however, to a feature possessed by both of them, which he considers so peculiarly distinctive as of itself alone almost to be sufficient to establish their common origin. This is the use of identical *infixes*.* It should be noted, however, that this important feature is not met with in the Polynesian dialects, which employ a prefix† instead, although it is found in all the true Malayan dialects, and is especially frequent in those of the Philippine islands. Prof. Keane does not give the origin of this "Malayan feature," as it is termed by the Rev. L. Dahle, who first pointed out its presence in Malagasy. It is somewhat difficult to understand how the use of infixes can be universal in Malay, but nct be met with in Polynesian, if, as Prof Keane supposes, those languages form one family with the "polysyllabic untoned languages of Indo-China," which the Malays are said to have acquired. If the Polynesian and Cambodian languages belong to the same family, that feature must either have been developed after their separation or have been acquired by the latter from a foreign source. When we consider that the use of infixes is essentially Malayan, we are tempted to believe that it has been taken by the Cambodian from the Malay or an allied language, such as the Cham. The latter opinion is supported by certain other characters of the Khmer tongue. This is classed by Mr. Keane with the "polysyllabic untoned languages," and rightly so inasmuch as the Khmer is pronounced *recto-tono;* although the same word has several significations, the sense of the phrase alone giving the true signification. According to M. Moura, however, the Cambodian language is really monosyllabic. He says expressly, "like all the languages and idioms spoken in our days by the peoples of the extreme East, the Cambodian is a monosyllabic language."

* Prof. Keane says that the infix is always the liquid *m* or *n* or *mn*, with or without the vowels *a*, *o* with *m*, or *a*, *i* with *n*.

† The Samoan *prefix* is *mo*.

He adds, "in books of poetry, theology and even sometimes in ordinary language, a certain number of polysyllabic words are found, but these words are generally of Sanskrit or Pali origin, and prove nothing against the general character of the language." M. Moura cites various words which have been derived from the Pali, and which could be indefinitely added to. He states that they have been shortened, so as to reduce them as much as possible to the monosyllabic form, "which is one of the distinctive features of the genius of the Khmer language." If this language is in reality monosyllabic, Prof. Keane's argument, based on its polysyllabic character, cannot be sustained, but even if M. Moura is wrong, we must conclude that the Khmer has been indebted for certain of its features to the Malay rather than the reverse.

As to the verbal relationship between the Khmer and Malay languages we may judge from the comparative vocabularies contained in M. Moura's work. Of the 124 words there given only twenty-four are the same in those languages, of which sixteen are however the same also in Cham, which has thirteen other words common to it and Khmer alone. It appears, therefore, that Cham is more nearly related to Khmer, judging from their vocabularies than is Malay. This agrees with the fact of the early communication between the Khmers and the Cham. Moreover, Malay and Cham agree in thirty-three instances out of the 124, showing a closer relation between these two languages than exists between either of them and Khmer. That all these languages include both Kolarian and Dravidian elements is shown by reference to the short comparative vocabulary appended to this paper. Those elements have, however, been derived from different sources. M. Moura would, indeed, seem to think that the language as well as the written character of the Cambodians is derived from the Sanskrit and Pali, and it has no doubt obtained its foreign element chiefly from the north. The Malay, on the other hand, is fundamentally related to the Kolarian and the allied Mongolian languages, and its Dravidian element has been obtained from the south. This feature occupies a more important position in Malay than Dr. Caldwell appears to allow. When referring to the Dravidian word *kıpp·al*, a ship, he says that the Malay word for "ship" is kapâl. He adds, however, that "this has probably been borrowed direct from Tamil, and forms one of a small class of Malay words which have sprung from a Dravidian origin, and which were introduced into the Eastern archipelago, either by means of the Klings (Kalingas), who settled there in primitive times, or by means of the Arab traders, whose first settlers in the East were on the Malabar coast, where the Malayâlam, the oldest daughter of the Tamil, is spoken." Reference has already been made to the Dravidian origin of some of the Malay numerals, to which may be added that the affix *tu* in Malay *satu*, one, appears to be only the neuter formative *du*, which, according to Dr. Caldwell, is contained in various shapes in the first three Dravidian numerals. Moreover, the Malay *sa*, like the Dravidian *oru*, one, is used as the indefinite article. Other verbal agreements could be

mentioned, but I will refer to only one other example. Dr. Caldwell states that *tî* is the classical Tamil word for "fire," but that the more commonly used word is *neruppu,* in Telugu *nippu.* Here we have, no doubt, the origin of the Malay *api* (in Samoan *afi*), which in Cham takes the form *apui.* Dr. Leyden long since pointed out that the language of the Malays contains a great number of Tamil, Malayalam and Telinga words which are not found in Sanskrit or the allied Indian languages, and particularly "a variety that are only to be found in Telinga," the vernacular of the ancient kingdom of Kalinga.*

* Asiat. Researches, Vol. x, p. 171.

		Khmer.			Cham.		
1	Bird	sat hor	*Dravidian*	kôr-i	chim po	(see *Egg*)	
			Persian	khor-os(cock)			
2	Dog	chhkê	*Tibetan*	khyi	asau	*Sanskrit*	swan
			Hindi	kootha		*Kolarian*	sétà
3	Ear	trachick	*Tibetan(Sok)*	khikhé	tanhu	*Naga*	tenhaun
			Kolarian	khetway		(see *Malay*)	
4	Egg	pong	*Yeniseian*	ong	bo	*Kolarian*	pito
5	Eye	phnek	*Dravidian*	kank	mata	*Kolarian*	met
		panék	*Hindi*	ānkh		*Mon* (Tegu)	mot
6	Female	nhi	*Dravidian*	henn-u	benai	*Dravidian*	pen, henn-u
7	Fire	phlung	*Kolarian*	sengel	apui	*Dravidian*	nippu
8	Fish	trey	*Kolarian*	hai	akan	*Kolarian*	haku
						Burmese	kha
9	Foot	chung	*Tibetan*	kango	takai	*Kolarian*	kata
			Mon (Pegu)	jaing			
10	Hand	day	*Kolarian*	tih	tangun	*Yeneseian*	hanga
			Dravidian	kei			
11	Head	kabal	*Sanskrit*	kapâla	akak	*Dravidian*	kuk
			Dravidian	tala		*Burm.* (*Sak*)	akhû
12	Horse	sē	*Tibetan*	ta	asè	(see *Khmer*)	
			Sanskrit	aswa			
13	House	ptea	*Drav.*(Gond)	erpa	sang	*Tibetan*	nang
14	Man	menus pros	*Pali*	manut	orang lokay	*Kolarian*	koro, lokka
			Sanskrit	manusha			
15	Moon	ke ?	*Burmese*	la	bulan	*Kolarian*	lerung
			Shan	len			
16	Mouth	mot	*Kolarian*	tamode	chebuoi	? *Yeneseian*	hohui. bu-
			Bengali	mukh			[khom
17	Nose	chrèmo	*Mongolian*	khamar	adung	*Yeneseian*	hang
			Siamese	tamua			
			Sanskrit	ghrana			[ma, elu-mbu
18	Ox	ku	*Sanskrit*	go (cow)	lama	*Dravidian*	eruma, er-
19	River	tanla	*Dravidian*	kole	sungai	*Cochin China*	song
			Nepaul	khola		*Mongolian*	uhung(wa-
20	Serpent	pos	*Nep.*(Tharu)	sapa	ala	(see *Malay*)	[ter)
		sbêk (skin)	*Dravidian*	pab, pavu			
21	Sky	mik	*Siamese*	mic	langik	*Kolarian*	sengil (fire)
			Burmese	mo			singi (sun)
22	Star	pakai	*Drav.*(Gond)	binka	bintang	*Dravidian*	binka
23	Stone	thma	*Mon* (Pegu)	tmauon	botau	(see *Egg*)	
24	Sun	thngai	*Kolarian*	singi	haray	*Mongolian*	nara
		tangai	(see *fire*)			*Sanskrit*	sûrya
25	Water	tenk, tak	*Kolarian*	dah	ea	*Dravidian*	yer
			Mon (Pegu)	dai			
26	Wood	chhu	*Dravidian*	chettu (tree)	kayou	*Dravidian*	chettu, gida
	1	muy	*Kolarian*	mia	sa	*Dravidian*	or-u
						Brahui	as-it
	2	pir	do.	baria	dua	*Tungusian*	dzur, dyur
	3	bey	do.	pia	klau	*Tungusian*	ela, gilang
	4	buon	do.	ponia	pac	*Kolarian*	ponia, apa-
	5	pram ?	*Tonkin*	lam	lému	*Tonkin*	lam [nia
			Annam	nam		*Annam*	nam
	6	pram muy			nam	*Tungusian*	nungun
	7	pram pil			tuju	*Dravidian*	edu, yetu
	8	pram bey			dopan	(two from ten)	
	9	pram buon			samlan	*Dravidian*	onbadu
							(one from ten)
	10	dap	*Dravidian*	padu	saphu	*Dravidian*	oru padu
			Tonkin	tap			(one ten)
			Hindi	das			

		Malay.			Samoan.		
1	Bird	burang tarbeang			manu	*Fiji*	manumanu
					moa (fowl)	*Khmer*	mon (fowl)
2	Dog	anjing	*Dravidian*	nây	uti, maile	*Fiji*	koli
		asu (*Java*)				*Singhalese*	balla
3	Ear	talinga	*Naga*	telanno	taliga	*Fiji*	daliga
			Arakan (Kumi),	kano			
		kana (*Java*)	*Singpho*	kana			
			Sanskrit	sila (stone)			
4	Egg	talor	*Dravidian*	kal (stone)	fua	*Fiji*	vua (fruit)
			Koreng	talo (stone)			
5	Eye	mata	(see *Cham*)		mata	*Fiji*	mata
6	Female	botina	(see *Cham*)		fafine		
7	Fire	api	*Dravidian*	nippu	afi		
			Thai	fai			
8	Fish	ikan	(see *Cham*)		i'a		
9	Foot	koki	*Kolarian*	kata	vae	*Dayak*	pai
			Tibetan	kango		*Fiji*	yava
			Permian	kok			
10	Hand	tangan	(see *Cham*)		lima	? *Siamese*	mu
					'a'ao (chief's)	*Fiji*	liga
11	Head	kapala	*Sanskrit*	kapâla	ulu		
		ulu	*Dravidian*	tala			
			Arakan (Kumi)	alú			
12	Horse	kudo	*Dravidian*	kudirei			
			Yeneseian	kut			
13	House	ruma	*Dravidian* (Gond)	roon	fale		
			Arakan (Kumi)	úm			
			Kolarian	ora			
14	Man	orang koki	(see *Cham*)		tano,tugata	*Fiji*	tagane, tamata
15	Moon	bulan	(see *Cham*)		ma-uli, ma-sina	*Fiji*	vula
16	Mouth	mulot	(see *Khmer*)		gutu	*Fiji*	gusu
			Arakan (Kumi)	amoká		*Singhalese*	kata
17	Nose	hidong	(see *Cham*)		isu	*Fiji*	ucu
						Sanskrit	nāsa
18	Ox	lambu	(see *Cham*)				
19	River	sūngei	(see *Cham*)		vaitafe	(see *Water*)	
20	Serpent	ulor			gata	? *Siamese*	ngu
		kulet (skin)	*Dravid.*	tol			
		uli (skin *Bugis*)					
21	Sky	langet	(see *Cham*)		lagi	*Fiji*	lagi
22	Star	bintang	(see *Cham*)		fetū	(see *Khmer*)	
23	Stone	botu	*Kolarian*	pito (egg)	fatu	*Fiji*	vatu
24	Sun	mato hari	(see *Cham*)		la	*Fiji*	siga
						Kolarian	singi
25	Water	ayor	(see *Cham*)		vai	*Fiji*	wai
					taufa (chief)		
26	Wood	kayu	(see *Cham*)		la'au	*Fiji*	kau (tree)
			Eskimo	keiyu			
	1	sátu			tasi	*Malagasy*	iray, isa
	2	dúa			lua	*do.*	roa
	3	tiga			tolu	*do.*	telo
	4	ampat	(*Bugis* apa)		fā	*do.*	efatra
	5	lima			lima	*do.*	dimy
	6	a'nam			ono	*do.*	enina
	7	tújoh			fitu	*do.*	fito
	8	delápan			valu	*do.*	valo
	9	sambilan			iva	*do.*	sivy
	10	sapúloh			sefulu	*do.*	folo

Stated Meeting, March 7, 1890.

Present, 10 members.

Mr. RICHARD VAUX in the Chair.

Prof. Henry Willis, a newly elected member, was presented to the Chair and took his seat.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters accepting membership from Prof. Robert W. Rogers and from Prof. Henry Willis, Philadelphia.

Letters of envoy were received from the Museo Nacional de Buenos Aires; Royal Statistical Society, London.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from Sir J. W. Dawson, Montreal (130); University of Pennsylvania (129, 130), Mrs. Helen Abbott Michael (130), Prof. Henry D. Gregory (130), Philadelphia; Maryland Historical Society, Baltimore (130).

A letter from the Department of State in reference to certain MSS. in the possession of the Society was ordered to be filed.

A letter was read from E. Frank Carson, requesting the loan of the Society's Hall for an approaching reunion of the Rittenhouse family, to be held April 8, 1890, being the 168th anniversary of his birth; and also requesting that the Society should be represented on the occasion, which, on motion, was referred to the President with power to act.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Académie des Sciences, Cracow, Austria; Section für Naturkunde, Ö C., Vienna; Verein für Lübeckische Geschichte und Alterthumskunde, Lübeck, Germany; Société Hollandaise des Sciences, Harlem, Holland; Philological Society, Cambridge, England; Rousdon Observatory, Devon, England; Geological, Royal Statistical Societies, London; Geological and Natura History Survey of Canada, Montreal; Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; Mr. Charles J. Hoadley, Hartford, Conn.; Prof. Robert W. Rogers, Philadelphia; Wyoming Historical Society, Wilkes-Barré; Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore;

U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Bureau of Ethnology, Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D.C.; Kansas Academy of Science, Topeka; University of California, Berkeley; Observatorio Meteorologico-Central, Mexico; Museo Nacional de Buenos Aires, S. A.

Mr. Phillips exhibited and presented to the Cabinet of the Society a bottle of "Earthquake sand from the Geysers at Summerville, S. C., August 31, 1886."

Mr. Vaux read an obituary notice of the late Franklin B. Gowen.

An obituary notice of the late Henry S. Frieze, LL.D., by Hon. James B. Angell, was presented by the Secretaries.

The death of Martin B. Anderson (formerly of Rochester, N. Y.) was reported as having taken place at Lake Helena, Florida, on February 26, 1890 (born February 12, 1815).

Prof. Barker exhibited to the Society four stellar photographs taken by Prof. Pickering, Director of the Harvard College Observatory, as a part of the Henry Draper Memorial. The photographs were of the spectrum of the star β Aurigæ, and showed the K line single in the first set and double in the second, although taken only about seventeen hours apart. This result appears to show that this star is binary, its components revolving about each other in somewhat less than four days. From the displacement of the components of the K line, the change in wave length and the velocity of motion may be calculated. Prof. Pickering finds this velocity to be 150 miles per second. The distance apart of the components he estimates to be eight million miles, and their joint mass about 2.3 times that of the sun. Since the spectrum method of detecting binary stars is independent of distance, it must always have an advantage in detecting such stars over the telescopic method.

Dr. Brinton offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Commemoration of the Death of Franklin be instructed to select all speakers on that occasion from members of the Society, and if engagements of others have already been made,

Stated Meeting, March 7, 1890.

Present, 10 members.

Mr. RICHARD VAUX in the Chair.

Prof. Henry Willis, a newly elected member, was presented to the Chair and took his seat.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters accepting membership from Prof. Robert W. Rogers and from Prof. Henry Willis, Philadelphia.

Letters of envoy were received from the Museo Nacional de Buenos Aires; Royal Statistical Society, London.

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U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Bureau of Ethnology, Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D.C.; Kansas Academy of Science, Topeka; University of California, Berkeley; Observatorio Meteorologico-Central, Mexico; Museo Nacional de Buenos Aires, S. A.

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Dr. Brinton offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Commemoration of the Death of Franklin be instructed to select all speakers on that occasion from members of the Society, and if engagements of others have already been made,

that they be informed that owing to alterations in the plan of the commemoration, the thanks of the Society are tendered them, but their attendance will not be expected.

Dr. Horn offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a Committee of three be appointed by the President to examine an oil portrait of Prof. S. F. Baird by Mr. H. Ulke, report on its desirability, and, if favorably, to solicit subscriptions for its purchase at a price not exceeding $200, for the gallery of this Society.

The President subsequently appointed as such Committee, Dr. George H. Horn and Messrs. J. Sergeant Price and William A. Ingham.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, March 21, 1890.

Present, 30 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Prof. Robert W. Rogers and Mr. Talcott Williams, lately elected members, were presented to the Chair and took their seats.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters from Hon. James T. Mitchell and Mr. Samuel Timmins accepting membership.

A circular from the University of Toronto, requesting donations to its library, to replace the one destroyed by fire on the 14th of February last; on motion, the Librarian was directed to forward to it such of the Proceedings of the Society as could be sent.

A letter from the Naturforschende Gesellschaft in Emden, Hannover, thanking the Society for its letter of congratulation on the late celebration of the seventy-fifth anniversary of its foundation.

A letter from the Trinity Historical Society, Dallas, Tex., asking for autograph letters.

A letter from the *Societas linguam universalem scientiarum ac negotiorum ancillam fundantium Internationalis.*

A prospectus of the "Antananarivo Annual," published in Madagascar.

The Museo Michoacano, Morelia, Mexico, was placed on exchange list from No. 96.

Letters of acknowledgment (Transactions, xvi, 3) were received from the Boston Public Library; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester; Buffalo Library; Astor Library, New York; Library U. S. Military Academy, West Point; New Jersey Historical Society, Newark; Pennsylvania Hospital, Franklin Institute, Library Co. of Philadelphia, Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; State Library of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg; U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.; University of Michigan; State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison; University of California, Berkeley.

Letters of acknowledgment (Proceedings, 130) were received from Prof. William P. Trowbridge, New York; Mr. Inman Horner, Philadelphia; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; Central Meteorological Observatory, Mexico; Deutscher Wissenschaft Verein, Santiago de Chile.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the K. K. Zool.-botanische Gesellschaft, Vienna; Verein zur Beförderung des Gartenbaues, Berlin; Dr. Paul Topinard, Paris; Royal Institution, Dr. Benjamin W. Richardson, London; Hon. John Canon O'Hanlon, Dublin; Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Boston; Mercantile Library, Drs. Daniel G. Brinton, F. A. Mühlenberg, Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., Philadelphia; Editor of "American Journal of Philology;" Legation de la Republica de Costa Rica, C. A.; Chief of Engineers, Department of State, Washington, D.C.; Museo Michoacano, Morelia, Mexico.

A photograph of the alleged Runic characters on Mananas island, near Monhegan, Maine, photographed and presented by Prof. J. F. Rothrock, Philadelphia.

A letter from Rev. F. A. Mühlenberg, D. D., accompanying his donation of the botanical note books of his grandfather, Rev. Henry E. Mühlenberg, a former member of this Society, and the letters to him of Rev. Christian Fr. Denke, a Moravian missionary.*

Botanical Journals, etc., by Dr. Henry E. Muhlenberg; born Nov. 17, 1753, died at Lancaster, Pa., May 23, 1815; presented to the American Philosophical Society, of which he was a member, by his grandson, Dr. F. A. Muhlenberg, March 21, 1890:

1. Botanice.
2. Book of descriptions, without title.
3. Plants not determined, according to Linnæus' System, etc., 1788.
4. Folia plantarum Lancast. and a catalogue of the plants of North America, 1808.
5. Tage Buch, 1784.
6. Tage Buch, 1785.
7. Noten Buch, 1785.
8. Tage Buch, 1786–89.
9. Catalogus arborum et fruticum Americæ Septentrionalis.
10. Cryptogamia Lancastriensis, 1791.
    I. Filices.
    II. Musci.
    III. Fungi.
        contains, also, Lichens Lancastriensis, etc.

* There is no autobiography in existence of Christian Fr. Denke; but, from information gained from conversations with Denke and others, a biographical sketch of Christian Heinrich Denke was published in "Nachrichten aus der Brüder Gemeinde," 1841, Heft iii, pages 467–477. (The name *Heinrich* is either a mistake, or possibly Denke may have been baptized Christian Friedrich Heinrich. I have not yet examined the baptismal records in Bethlehem). Denke was born at Bethlehem, Pa., September 8, 1775, and was sent to Nazareth Hall in 1785, remained there after his father's death, and afterwards was appointed one of the teachers. In 1797, he resolved to become a missionary among the Indians. After having been ordained Deacon in Bethlehem, he left May, 1800, with Heckewaelder for Gosen on the Muskiagum, remained here until August, studying the Delaware language, and then went to Fairfield in Upper Canada, commencing in June, 1801, his labors among the Chippeways. He translated into the Delaware language various parts of the Bible, of which the Epistles of St. John were printed. In 1803, he returned to Pennsylvania, married August 7, at Lititz, Anna Maria Heckedorn, went back to Canada, 1804 to Youngquakamick, 1807 to Pettquoting, then back to Fairfield. After the burning of Fairfield in autumn, 1813, he fled to Delawaretown. In September, 1815, he began to build New Fairfield, but returned to Bethlehem in 1818. Receiving a call as pastor to Hope, in the Wachau, he reached Salem, N. Car., in summer, 1820; in 1822, he became pastor at Friedberg, but retained charge also of the small congregation in Hope. His wife died in 1828, and September 12, he married Marie Steiner. 1832, he retired from his spiritual labors, and intended to again devote his time to botany and other branches of natural science. 1834, symptoms of dropsy appeared; his right side was paralyzed in November, 1837, and he died at Salem, January 12, 1838.

JOHN M. MAISCH.

11. Agrostographia Pennsylvaniæ, etc.
12. Gräser, die bei Lancaster wild wachsen oder die ich sonst auf meinen inländischen Reisen bemerkte.
13. Plantæ cryptogamicæ Lancastriensis, etc.
14. Fungi Pennsylvaniæ, Mediæ, etc., 1793 et annù seq.
15. Monographien von Gewächsen von Lancaster, 1790, Vol. i.
16. Monographien plantarum Lancastriensis, Vol. ii.
17. Descriptio plantarum ex alies partibus Americæ Septentrionalis, incepta a 1792.
18. Sammlung von Beiträgen zur Kenntniss der Natur, 1785. With observations on agriculture.
19. Fortsetzung meines Journals von Jahren 1799–1806.
20. Botanical Journal, 1807–1815, to May 20, three days before his death.
21. Flora Lancastriensis, 1790.
22. Letters, etc., of the Rev. C. F. Denke, Moravian preacher and missionary, and one of the early botanists of America.

Prof. Lesley read an obituary notice of the late Leo Lesquereux.

The death was announced of Rev. Daniel R. Goodwin, D.D., Philadelphia, on March 15, 1890, in the seventy-ninth year of his age.

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint a suitable person to prepare the usual obituary notice.

Mr. J. Vaughan Merrick was subsequently appointed by the President.

The death of Dr. Gustav Weil, Heidelberg, September 10, 1889, æt. 71, was also announced.

The Secretaries presented for the Proceedings the two following papers by Dr. Harrison Allen : "Description of a New Species of Macrotus" and "Description of a New Species of Pteropus."

New nomination 1209 was read.

Dr. Horn, from the Committee on the Portrait of Prof. Baird by H. Uhlke, reported it now at Earle's Galleries in this city, and to be a good painting. On motion, the Committee was continued.

Dr. Oliver, from the Committee on Franklin Celebration, reported progress.

The President of the Society reported that he had conferred

with the writer of the letter to the Society respecting the Rittenhouse celebration (March 7, 1890), and that he was of the opinion that such a use of the Society's Hall as was therein requested, was not expedient.

Dr. Brinton asked as a question of privilege what action the Committee on the Franklin Celebration had taken on the Society's resolution passed at the last meeting.

Mr. Biddle, of the Committee, stated it had been carefully and respectfully considered, and that after two meetings it had been laid over until the next meeting.

Dr. Horn offered the following preamble and resolution:

Having been present at the meeting of March 7, and voting in the affirmative, I move to reconsider the following resolution passed at that time:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Commemoration of the Death of Franklin be instructed to select all speakers on that occasion from members of the Society, and if engagements of others have already been made, that they be informed that owing to alterations in the plan of the commemoration, the thanks of the Society are tendered them, but their attendance will not be expected.

The motion was seconded by Dr. Brinton, and the question was discussed by Messrs. Horn, Brinton, Oliver, Biddle, Morris, Vaux, Martindale, Potts, Cope, Lesley, and Greene.

The question being put it was agreed that the Society should reconsider the original motion.

The original motion then being put, by a *viva voce* vote was not agreed to. On which the ayes and nays being demanded the resolution was voted on and not agreed to by 26 nays to 2 ayes.

Dr. Jayne offered the following resolution, which was agreed to:

Resolved, That the Secretaries be requested to communicate with the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty with a view to obtaining as a donation the Reports on the Voyage of the *Challenger*. And, further, should such application prove unsuccessful, that the Committee on Library should procure the same by purchase.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

No MEETING of the Society was held on April 4, 1890, it being Good Friday.

APRIL 17, 1890.

The One-hundredth Anniversary of the death of Benjamin Franklin was commemorated at Association Hall, by the Society. Addresses were delivered as follows:

A Short Biography of Dr. Franklin, by John Bach McMaster, Professor of American History in the University of Pennsylvania; "His Literary Labors," by G. Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, at Washington; "His Scientific Work," by Prof. J. W. Holland, Professor of Medical Chemistry and Toxicology in the Jefferson Medical College; "His Association With the Society," by Frederick Fraley, LL.D., President of the Society; "His Diplomatic Services," by Prof. Henry M. Baird, Professor of English Literature and Greek in the University of the City of New York.

A full account will be published in Proceedings, No. 133.

Stated Meeting, April 18, 1890.

Present, 14 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters of envoy were received from the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science, Sydney; Societas Pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, Helsingfors; Observatoire Astronomique et Physique, Tashkend; Physikalische Gesellschaft, Berlin; Bureau des Longitudes, Paris; Bath and West of

England Society and Southern Counties Association, Bath; Meteorological Office, London.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Royal Society of New South Wales, Sydney (129); Academie Royale Danoise des Sciences, etc., Copenhagen (128, 129); Natural History Society, Montreal (129, 130); Sociedad Cientifica "Alzate," Mexico (129, 130).

Letters of acknowledgment (130) were received from the K. K. Central-Anstalt für Meteorologie, etc., Wien; Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Emden; Naturwissenschaftliche Gesellschaft "Isis," Dresden; Dr. Julius Platzmann, Leipzig; Société Linneenne de Bordeaux; Société de Borda, Dax; Société d'Anthropologie, Profs. Abel Hovelacque, Léon de Rosny, Rémi Siméon, Paris; Geological and Natural History Survey, Ottawa, Canada; Mr. Talcott Williams, Philadelphia; Prof. S. P. Langley, Washington, D. C.; California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco.

A letter of acknowledgment for diploma was received from Prof. Dr. Hugo Von Meltzel, Koloszvar, Hungary.

A letter of acknowledgment, Transactions, Vol. xvi, Part iii, was received from the San Francisco Free Public Library, San Francisco, Cal.

A letter from Daniel F. Wolf, suggesting that the tombstone of Franklin should be re-lettered and a bronze tablet placed on the graveyard wall with a suitable inscription.

The following letter from M. P. Massion (Notaire, Boulevard Haussmann, 58, Paris, France) was read:

P. Massion, Paris, le 31 Mars, 1890.
Notaire,
Successeur de son Père
58, Boulevard Haussmann.

Monsieur le Président:

J'ai l'honneur de vous informer qu'aux termes de son testament déposé en mon étude, Monsieur Auguste Carlier, décédé en son domicile à Paris, rue de Berlin, N°. 12, le 16 Mars courant, a légué à la Société Philosophique de Philadelphie, dont il était membre, une somme de vingt mille francs. Cette Société en fera l'usage qu'elle jugera convenable pour l'aider dans ses travaux.

Quand cette somme pourra être mise à votre disposition, je vous en aviserai.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur le President, l'assurance de mes sentiments distingués,

MASSION.

MONSIEUR LE PRÉSIDENT DE LA SOCIÉTÉ PHILOSOPHIQUE, PHILADELPHIE.

On motion, the letter was referred to the Committee on Finance, and the President was requested to prepare and transmit a suitable answer to the same.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Royal Society of New South Wales, Australian Association for the Advancement of Science, Sydney; Société des Naturalistes, Kief; Observatoire Astronomique et Physique, Tashkend; Societas Pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, Helsingfors, Finland; K. K. Naturhistorisches Hof-Museum, K. K. Geographische Gesellschaft, K. K. Geologische Reichsanstalt, Wien; Gesellschaft für Erdkunde, Physikalische und Physiologische Gesellschaft, K. P. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Berlin; Mr. A. Radcliffe Grote, Bremen; Oberlausitzer Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Görlitz; Mr. Aug. Nilson, Gefle, Sweden; K. Danske Videns Rabernes Selskab, Copenhagen; "Flora Batava," Leyden; R. Istituto, Lombardo, Milan; Accademia Reale delle Scienze, Turin; Corpo delle Miniere, Servizio Geologico, R. Accademia dei Lincei, Rome; R. Istituto Veneto di Scienze, Lettre ed Arti, Venice; Société Historique, etc., du Cher, Bourges; Société de Borda, Dax; Académie des Sciences, etc., Dijon; Sociétés d'Anthropologie, Zoologique de France, Bureau des Longitudes, Paris; Société des Antiquaries de la Morinie, Saint-Omer; R. Academia de la Historia, Madrid; Commission des Travaux Geologiques de Portugal, Lisbon; Bath and West of England Society, and Southern Counties Association, Bath; Philosophical Society, Cambridge, Eng.; Meteorological Council, London; Mr. Horatio Hale, Clinton (Ontario), Canada; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge, Mass.; Essex Institute, Public Library, Salem; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester; Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence; Commissioners of the State Reser-

vation at Niagara, Albany; Academy of Sciences, Dr. J. S. Newberry, Mr. J. Bleecker Miller, Messrs. Ivison, Blakeman & Co., New York; Mr. Franklin Leonard Pope, Elizabeth, N. J.; Academy of Natural Sciences, Mercantile Library, Messrs. Edwin A. Barber, W. C. Blelock, D. G. Brinton, E. D. Cope, Walter M. James, Henry Phillips, Jr., Philadelphia; Maryland Academy of Sciences, Baltimore; U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Fish Commission, Geological Survey, Bureau of Education, Smithsonian Institution, Secretary of War, Dr. Albert S. Gatschet, Hon. Charles O'Neill, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Jane Rittenhouse Wilson presented a cornelian said to have been formerly worn by Dr. Benjamin Franklin, of which she gave the following account:

Benjamin Franklin, during his attendance at the Convention that adopted the Declaration of Independence, wore a certain watch chain on which was a cornelian charm.

This chain and charm he gave to a personal friend, a veteran of the war of 1812, named Daniel Leman, who gave it to his friend,

Mrs. Jane Rittenhouse Wilson,

One of the Rittenhouse family.

The following deaths were reported:

M. Louis A. C. Carlier, Paris, March 19, 1890, æt. 87.
Mr. Frederick Graff, Philadelphia, March 30, 1890, æt. 73.

On motion, the President was requested to appoint suitable persons to prepare the usual obituary notices.

A paper on "Fresh Water Infusoria," by Dr. Alfred C. Stokes (Trenton, New Jersey), was presented through the Secretaries.

A paper on the "Asiatic Affinities of the Malay Language," by C. Staniland Wake, was presented by the Secretaries.

Pending nomination No. 1209 and new nominations Nos. 1210, 1211 and 1212 were read.

The Committee on Extended Accommodations presented the following Report:

PHILADELPHIA, April 16, 1890.

The Committee on Extended Accommodations, appointed January 17, would respectfully report,

That they have carefully considered the various propositions referred to them; and after due deliberation, concluded to request from J. M. Wilson, Esq., Architect, plans for the alteration of the present building, such as would render it completely fire-proof, harmonize with its surroundings, and provide for the Society's present needs as well as its prospective ones for a period of at least twenty years to come.

He has submitted the accompanying plans and proposal, the adoption of which we would recommend: and therefore offer the following resolution:

That the Committee on Extended Accommodations be continued and empowered to enter into negotiations for alterations to the present buildings in accordance with the plan now submitted.

W. P. TATHAM,
RICHARD VAUX,
FREDERICK FRALEY,
J. CHESTON MORRIS,
Chairman.

A discussion ensued upon the subject, in which Messrs. Morris, Hays, Baker, Dudley, Vaux, Tatham, Potts and others took part.

Dr. Hays moved that the subject be made the special order for the next stated meeting and that notice thereof be put on the meeting cards.

Mr. Vaux moved that the subject be considered at a special meeting, to be held on next Friday (April 25), and that notice should be placed on the meeting cards, and further that the Librarian should place on the cards the words "the plans can be examined at the rooms of the Society."

Mr. Vaux's motion was carried *nem. con.*

On motion, the Treasurer was authorized and empowered to satisfy a mortgage of William J. Norris for $4000, the same having been paid off.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Special Meeting, April 25, 1890.

Present, 27 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

No Secretaries being present at the time of calling the meeting to order, Mr. J. Sergeant Price was chosen as Secretary *pro tem.*

The object of the meeting, as ordered at the last meeting of the Society, was announced, and Dr. J. Cheston Morris, Chairman of the Special Committee on Extended Accommodations, made a detailed statement of the changes proposed to the building and exhibited and explained the plans for the same. Mr. Price made a statement in regard to the rights of the Society to the property and read the various Acts of Assembly bearing on the subject.

The resolution from the Committee on Extended Accommodations, submitted at the last meeting (April 18), came up for consideration as follows:

Resolved, That the Committee on Extended Accommodations be continued and empowered to enter into negotiations for alterations to the present building in accordance with the plan now submitted, or such modifications thereof as may be suggested by the Committee or its architect.

After discussion and debate, the resolution was adopted by a vote of 21 to 5, and the yeas and nays being called the vote stood as follows: 21 to 5.

On motion of Mr. Vaux, it was resolved that the Committee be directed to proceed with the business authorized by the Society to be done by it.

And the meeting was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, May 2, 1890.

Present 14 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

The annual program of the R. Academia Nederlandica, *ex legato Hoeufftiano*, for 1891 was presented.

Letters of envoy were received from the K. P. Meteorologisches Institut, Berlin; Mr. Clifford P. MacCalla, Philadelphia; Smithsonian Institution, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Washington.

A letter of acknowledgment (Transactions xvi, 3) was received from the Geological and Natural History Survey, Ottawa, Canada.

Letters of acknowledgment (129) were received from the K. K. Sternwarte, Prag; Drs. Friederich Müller, Dionys Stur, Edward Suess, Vienna.

Letters of acknowledgment (130) were received from Drs. Friederich S. Krauss, Vienna; Naturforschende Gesellschaft des Osterlandes, Altenburg; Naturhistorische Gesellschaft, Hannover; K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Leipzig; Verein für Vaterländische Naturkunde, Würtemberg; Royal Society, Royal Meteorological, Royal Astronomical Societies, Linnean Society, Society of Antiquaries, London; University Library, Cambridge, England.

The Tokyo Anthropological Society was placed on the exchange list to receive Proceedings from 119.

A letter from Mrs. Harriet Maxwell Converse (New York city, N. Y., April 28, 1890), soliciting subscriptions for a monument to Red Jacket, was read.

The following letter was read:

1325 WALNUT STREET.

TO THE HONORABLE FREDERICK FRALEY, AND THE MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY:

Gentlemen:—I have the honor to offer for your acceptance, the portrait of my brother, the late Henry M. Phillips, formerly a member of your Society, in whose memory The Prize Essay Fund was established.

Very respectfully,

EMILY PHILLIPS.

PHILADELPHIA, May 1, 1890.

On motion, the Society accepted the gift and requested the President to express its thanks for the same.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Société de la Littérature Finnoise, Helsingfors; Naturforscher-Verein, Riga; Société Malacologique de Belgique, Bruxelles; K. K. Geologische Reichsanstalt, Vienna; K. P. Meteorologische Institut, Physikalische Gesellschaft, Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, Ethnologie, etc., Messrs. M. Friedländer & Sohn, Berlin; K. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Göttingen; Voigtländische Alterthumsforschende Verein, Hohenleuben; Biblioteca N. C. V. E., Rome; The Boletin Meteorológico, Madrid; Public Library, Salem, Mass.; Yale University, New Haven; Engineers' Club, Mr. C. P. MacCalla, Philadelphia; U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.; Leander McCormick Observatory, University of Virginia; Mr. William Harden, Savannah; Society of Natural History, Cincinnati; Historical Society, Mr. Philip C. Frieze, Chicago; Iowa Academy of Sciences, Des Moines; University of California, Berkeley; California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco.

The President announced that he had appointed Mr. William P. Tatham to prepare the obituary notice of the late Frederick Graff, and that the appointment had been accepted.

The death of James McClune (Philadelphia, May 1, 1890, æt. 83) was announced.

Dr. Bonwill, through the Secretaries, presented a paper entitled "Geometry and Mechanics Deny Evolution."

Pending nominations Nos. 1209, 1210, 1211 and 1212 were read.

The Committee on the Purchase of the Baird Portrait reported progress and was continued.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, May 16, 1890.

Present, 22 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters of envoy were received from the Observatoire Physique Central, St. Petersburg; Royal Observatory, Greenwich; Literary and Philosophical Society, Liverpool.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Institut Egyptien, Cairo (128, 129, 130); Bureau des Longitudes, Paris (126); Library of the University of California, Berkeley (126, 127, 129, 130).

Letters of acknowledgment (130) were received from Societas pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, Prof. Otto Donner, Helsingfors, Finland; Comité Géologique de la Russie, Observatoire Physique Central, Prof. Serge Nikitin, St. Petersburg; K. Zoologisch Genootschap, Amsterdam; K. Zoologisch-Botanisch Genootschap, The Hague; Bataafsch Genootschap der Proefondervindelijke Wijsbegeerte, Rotterdam; Prof. Dr. Japetus Steenstrup, Copenhagen; Société Vaudoise des Sciences Naturelles, Lausanne; K. Bibliothek, Berlin; Verein für Erdkunde, Dresden; Editor of "Cosmos," Mr. A. Des Cloezeaux, Comte Hyacinthe de Charencey, St. Maurice-les-Charencey, Paris; Royal Dublin Society, Dublin; Cambridge Philosophical Society, Cambridge, England; Dr. John Evans-Hemel, Hempstead; Yorkshire Geological and Polytechnic Society, Chevinedge, Halifax, England; Royal Institution, Local Government Board, Dr. Joseph D. Hooker, Sir John Lubbock, London; Mr. Joseph S. Harris, Philadelphia.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Linnean Society, N. S. Wales; Anthropological Society, Tokyo; So-

ciété Impéreale des Naturalistes, Moscow; Physikalische Central-Observatoriums, St. Petersburg; Prof. Hugo von Meltzel, Dr. M. Faths, Kolozsvár, Hungary; Société de Physique, etc., Geneva; Ronsdon Observatory, Devon; Royal Observatory, Greenwich; Literary and Philosophical Society, Liverpool; Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence; Cornell University, Ithaca; Editor of "The Nation," New York; State Librarian of New Jersey, Hopewell; Zoölogical Society, College of Physicians, Franklin Reformatory Home for Inebriates, Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., Philadelphia; Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; National Academy of Sciences, Mr. Lester F. Ward, Washington, D. C.; Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society, Raleigh, N. C.; University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa; Prof. James B. Angell, Ann Arbor; Public Library, Peoria, Ill.; Geological Survey of Missouri, Jefferson City; Commissão Geographica Geologica, S. Paulo, Brazil.

Pending nominations Nos. 1209, 1210, 1211 and 1212 were read, spoken to and balloted for.

The proceedings of the Board of Officers and Council were submitted.

The Secretaries reported that the paper presented by Dr. Bonwill at the last meeting of the Society should appear, if at all, in the Transactions and not in the Proceedings.

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint at his leisure a committee of three members to examine and report upon the same.

Prof. Cope made a communication on "The Dinosauria of the Laramie Formation," illustrating the subject with many fossil specimens.

Prof. Ryder presented a paper entitled "On the Origin of Sex through Cumulative Integration and the Relation of Sexuality to the Genesis of Species."

On motion of Mr. Tatham, the Society adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, 1. That whenever the Committee on Extended Accommodations, charged with the alteration and improvement of the building,

shall have perfected the plans and specifications for the same and have had a contract prepared for the execution thereof, the President and Treasurer of the Society shall be and are hereby authorized to execute such contract under the corporate seal of the Society.

Resolved, 2. That said Committee, in conjunction with the Curators and the Committee on the Hall, be authorized to rent a suitable place or places to which to remove the Library, Portraits and other Collections and to have such removals effected in such manner as will secure the property from injury, and to continue the insurance thereon against loss by fire, and also to rent a suitable room in which the Secretary and Librarian can transact the business of the Society until the Hall can be reoccupied.

Resolved, 3. That the Treasurer be authorized to make payments upon the contracts for the alterations and improvements and of other expenses incident to the removal.

Resolved, 4. That the Librarian of the Society be added to the aforesaid Committee as a member thereof.

The following resolutions, offered on behalf of the Trustees of the Building Fund, were adopted:

WHEREAS, The American Philosophical Society, at a meeting held on October 5, 1866, did adopt a preamble and resolution setting forth that it was "expedient for the security of the books and property of the Society there should be erected a fire-proof building," and did thereby also provide for the appointment of Trustees of and the raising of money for a Building Fund and to "continue to invest and reinvest all principal, interest and income of said fund until this Society shall determine to build for itself a fire-proof building, and make commencement thereof, and then to pay to the Treasurer of the Society out of the proceeds of such investments such sums as the Society shall from time to time direct to be paid to him for that purpose."

AND WHEREAS, The Society, on April 25, 1890, after having had plans for the alteration of their Hall submitted to them, authorized and empowered their Committee on Extended Accommodations to enter into negotiation for alteration of their present building in accordance with the plans then presented, or such modifications of them as might be suggested by the Committee or its architect.

AND WHEREAS, The said plans have been so modified by the Committee as to make said Hall a fire-proof building; therefore, be it

Resolved, That the Trustees of the Building Fund of the American Philosophical Society be directed to pay to the Treasurer of the Society

out of the proceeds of the investment held by them such sums as will be necessary to pay for the addition and improvement to the present Hall of the Society, so as to make it a fire-proof building.

Resolved, That the Trustees of the Building Fund of the American Philosophical Society are hereby authorized and directed to sell and dispose of the City Loans and other securities held by them, and to make and execute the necessary transfers and assignments thereof so as to vest in the purchasers a full title to said securities.

The Committee on the Franklin Centennial Commemoration reported that it had duly taken place, and presented bills amounting to $258.93, which were ordered to be paid, and on motion the Committee was discharged.

The Special Committee on the Purchase of the Baird Portrait reported progress and was continued.

The Society adopted the following resolution reported from Council:

Resolved, That hereafter 250 copies of "separata" of papers published in the Proceedings be furnished to the author if requested by him, and that Council recommends that the Society should request the Secretaries to inquire how far it would be practicable in the present state of its finances to adopt a resolution to issue the Proceedings more frequently than at present.

All other business having been finished, the Tellers counted the ballots cast for the respective candidates and reported the result to the President, who declared the following to have been duly elected to membership in the Society:

2179. Prof. George S. Fullerton, Philadelphia.

2180. Robert Patterson Field, Philadelphia.

2181. Rev. Heman L. Wayland, D.D., Philadelphia.

2182. Charles Godfrey Leland, London.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

The Origin of Sex through Cumulative Integration, and the Relation of Sexuality to the Genesis of Species.

By John A. Ryder.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, May 16, 1890.*)

General Considerations.

A careful survey of the living world leads to the conclusion that sexuality has been, in all probability, one of the many results of the operation of the forces of evolution. A further examination of the evidence discloses the fact that sexuality has arisen very gradually and only through an extensive series of very gentle progressive and successive steps. These steps seem to have had a definite sequence and to have been accompanied by such a gradual complication of means, that it seems highly probable, indeed certain, that in many instances, a given higher grade of sexuality has grown out of the preceding one. This serial superimposition of means to serve apparently more advantageous ends proceeds according to fixed rules or laws, apparently determined by the already attained structural complication and physiological activities of organisms, and in conformity with the controlling conditions offered by their surroundings.

A still further examination of the data of sexuality leads to the conclusion that the methods of it which may be observed in the vegetable and animal worlds have proceeded along two parallel but distinct lines of progress. Both have ended in the achievement of the same result, namely, viviparity or the production of offspring in an advanced state of development, before the latter is set free from the parent to begin an independent existence for itself. An acorn is as truly a product of viviparous development as an infant human being. The elaborate process of organic evolution through which it has been possible to develop the one, is just as wonderful as in the case of the other.

The end-result of the achievement of viviparity has been to enable forms so produced to survive with far more certainty, and to begin their struggle for existence with a greater chance of success than if the complex series of processes of germ-development, in these cases, had to proceed to the same stage without the elaborate means of protection afforded by the parent. This is so obvious that it seems hardly necessary to call attention to the significance of the gradual complication of sexual processes. Yet, as one finds the subject usually dealt with, sexuality seems to be regarded, by the majority of writers, as an ultimate fact, and as such, incapable of interpretation in more general terms.

That sexuality has an important bearing upon some of the most important questions in evolution, no thoughtful biologist would probably doubt. Notwithstanding this, there have been few serious attempts made to grapple with the problem of "sex." Many of the attempts which have

been made have failed because of the way in which the fundamental question, sex itself, was ignored. Most of the speculations in relation to sex have been content with determining the effects of self and cross-fertilization, and have accordingly dealt with some of the consequences of already achieved sexuality, but have thrown no light whatever upon the probable origin of sex itself.

Without questioning the high value of the results of such experimental investigations, the question of the origin of sex is probably nearly or quite beyond the pale of experimental inquiry, in virtue of the fact that even the lowest organisms in which sexuality is manifested, are already so persistently adapted to a certain habit of life, and are consequently so fixed in organization that experimental investigation looking to a modification of their reproductive processes through artificial interference is quite impossible within the limits of a single life-time devoted to experimental research. We shall accordingly have to examine the phenomena of sexuality as we find them, and upon careful analysis and comparison try to reach such conclusions as seem to be warranted by the evidence.

Since sexuality leads to processes of discontinuous growth in the production of new beings or offspring, it is of the utmost importance that this very important fact should be kept in mind from the start. That it has a significance there can be no doubt, when considered in connection with the manner in which germs are produced in the various types. The manner in which such discontinuity is effected varies within wide limits and is associated with other preliminary processes, such as the formation of fixed colonies of animal organisms and the multiplication of axes or branches in the vegetable kingdom. One of these two processes is, in fact, usually the prelude to the occurrence of the process of the dehiscence of the definitive sexual elements in a great variety of forms.

When the one process, namely, that of continuous growth of the parent organism, ceases, the reproductive process seems to recur, so that sexual genesis and growth seem to be opposed to each other, as has often been pointed out. The impossibility of otherwise adding or integrating more tissue through the incorporation of more nutriment to a structure already finished, or fully developed, at least for the time being, leads apparently to the recurrence of sexuality. The expression of sexuality is accordingly largely, if not wholly, dependent upon nutrition, and it is from this fundamental standpoint that it will be dealt with here.

It will be equally important to consider the peculiar characteristics of sexual cells. In almost all biological works it is asserted that the germ-cells of multicellular forms are in all respects, at first, morphologically identical with the other undifferentiated cells of the parent body. While this statement is true of the young germ-cells, it is untrue of nearly all mature germ-cells. The latter, in their mature condition, present us with form-elements, either of a size greatly in excess of those of the rest of the body or others which are, invariably within the limits of the animal kingdom at least, smaller than any of the cells of the parent organism. The

significance of this fact must also be constantly borne in mind, as well as the equally important one respecting the usual morphological equivalence of myriads of the smaller or male germ-cells and a single large or female germ-cell, in the majority of higher forms.

This frequent, indeed usual, lack of equivalence of the male and female reproductive bodies has been almost entirely ignored by many authors, and has led, as the present writer is convinced, to erroneous interpretations of some of the most important phenomena of subsequent development. The peculiar function of growth of the female cell and its specialized method of segmentation, after the initiation of development, has apparently contained little of significance for the great majority of biologists. Segmentation of the oösperm, as the fertilized egg is termed, is a matter of course with the majority of embryologists, whose work begins with the institution of segmentation and not with any apparent anxiety as to the origin or cause of the thing which segments, and which does little else for a considerable space of time. While the high value of the work done through careful embryological research is to be properly appreciated and is so appreciated by no one more than by the present writer, I believe that embryological teaching and investigation should begin with a consideration of the probable causes which have led to the production of the fully developed and united elements which are usually the subject of the embryologist's study.

The universal occurrence of sexuality amongst all plants and animals, except amongst the very lowest forms, is surely evidence enough, if any were needed, that somehow sex must have been a most important factor in biological development. To say that sexuality was developed solely for the purpose of inducing variability or of favoring fertility and vigor through crossing does not suffice in the face of the evidence presently to be offered. When the defenders of the view, that sexuality was developed in order to favor variability and cross-fertilization, are asked to give any probable reason for the origin of sexuality, the causes alleged are such as have seemed, to the present writer at least, so unsatisfactory that they are hardly worth serious attention.

What, then, was the origin and meaning of sexuality? What were some of the causes which may be reasonably supposed to have been operative in inducing sexual differentiation? Was sexuality differentiated for any purpose, or was its development merely the result of the operation of natural causes? These are some of the questions that the present writer has set before himself to answer, with such light as may be derived from the facts in the present state of our knowledge.

The value of this attempt at an approximation to an answer to these questions must be determined by the judgment of those most competent to form an opinion and the value of the results as a working hypothesis in the hands of such persons.

If, as the writer believes, sexuality has been the means through which morphological complexes or organisms of all sorts, animal and vegetable,

have been built up, that alone would be a sufficient reason for a renewed discussion of the subject. If, moreover, the evolution of sexuality, through natural causes, has not only been one of the most important agents in evolution of all the multicellular types past and present, but also the means through which the first possibilities of individual variability, fertility and morphological capability were greatly augmented, it is exceedingly desirable that the evidence upon which such claims are based, should be presented. Finally, if sexuality has led to consequences as far-reaching as these, it is also obvious that its claim to consideration, as a factor in biological evolution, is, perhaps, quite as great as that of the principle of natural selection, to the elucidation and demonstration of which Darwin devoted the best years of his life with a singleness of purpose which has been rarely equaled.

That so strongly expressed a characteristic as sexuality, in both the animal and vegetable kingdoms, should have been developed for mere reproduction, is completely disproved by the data of sexuality themselves. It is clear that sexuality becomes more specialized with the progress of the structural complication of organisms, yet external influences may lead to the suppression of fully developed sexuality. It has been most conclusively proved, that if a species is artificially cared for, in a word, cultivated, as in the case of plants, it may be indefinitely reproduced by means other than those of sexuality. It is even probable that partial or complete sterility has been so induced in not a few plants cultivated for their fruits. The only remaining effect, if effect it can be called, is the impotent fructification of the ovules, whereby the fleshy esculent mesocarp of the ovary or fruit is stimulated to growth and development, for which alone the plant is valued by its cultivator, man. But, so far as I am aware, it has not yet been even proved that such fertilization is necessary.

If parthenogenesis can and does occur in *Cœlobogyne* and in *Saprolegnia*, there is no reason why, even in highly developed monocotyledons, such as the astonishingly productive Banana, in spite of its sterility, should produce indefinitely, through a kind of abortive parthenogenesis and as a result of its great vigor, its succulent but seedless fruits.

If the progressive differentiation or the gradually more intensified expression of sexuality means anything at all, in both plants and animals, beyond providing for mere reproduction, it must mean something of far more utility to species than to provide for variability alone. If the gradual acquirement of viviparity in both animals and plants has any significance, it includes not only a provision for variability, but also achieves the far more important end of providing greatly increased chances for the survival of the thus protected germs or viviparously produced young.

That the young of such forms are more susceptible to the altering influences of outer conditions than the adult is conspicuously established by the evidence drawn from comparatively complex forms. It is well known that the normal alga-like, filiform protonema of *Sphagnum* may, in some

cases, become a flat thallus if grown upon a solid, moist substratum. And doubtless, corresponding modifications may be otherwise induced in the further development of its sexual offspring, but of this I know of no direct proof.

That it should have been assumed that sexuality provides for variability is not strange. If one considers the problem of variability from morphological and physiological points of view, the evidence is wholly in favor of the conclusion that increased complexity would favor variability. That sexuality has increased the complication of its attendant processes there cannot be the slightest doubt. If the results have become more complex as viviparously developed germs were evolved, not only would the capacity of those germs to vary be increased in virtue merely of such increased complexity, but the offspring of two parent individuals, differing even very slightly, would also have to be added as a factor favorable to variation.

Unfavorable to some forms of the doctrine of rejuvenescence or that view which regards sexuality as a means of rejuvenating certain cells by means of conjugation or the act of fertilization, are the facts which prove that, in the vegetable world at least, growth may go on indefinitely without the recurrence of sexuality, and with increased, rather than with diminished, vigor. I need only to cite the Banana which has been asexually propagated by cuttings for centuries. The significant and persistent vigor through twenty centuries of a Dracæna, or Dragon's blood tree, is also of interest in this connection. The persistent growth of the asexual generations of tree ferns in the present age and of the gigantic Lepidodendrons and Equisetums of the carboniferous period, shows that conditions of life have much to do in maintaining the vigor of such asexual generations.

Senility, or impairment of vigor, does not then seem to result from continued growth, as is shown by these facts, and this conclusion is equally well established by the facts which are known in relation to the reproduction of the Cyanophyceæ, Schizomycetes and the yeast plant.

This unimpaired vigor seems to be associated with the continuous production of new axes in the higher plants, or with continuous fission of cell-units in the lower ones. In animals, on the other hand, this vigor shows itself most pronounced in the colonial forms (cormi), or in such as are specially nourished, as the Queen Bee or ant-queen of Termites, amongst Anthropods, and amongst which these animals are also the longest lived, and where it finds expression partly, at least, in parthenogenesis. The astonishing vigor of the fertile parents of these forms is largely determined by their abundant nutriment.

The genesis of sexuality, upon final analysis, will probably be found to be a purely physiological question, in the discussion of which the energies represented by the cytoplasm of the egg on the one hand, and its nucleus and that of the spermatozoan on the other, will have to be considered. This will, however, represent only the germinal or embryological side of the problem, which takes no cognizance of the preëmbryonic history of

the germinal elements before the latter are set free from the parent. The attempt to formulate the laws of sexuality without examining into the preëmbryonic history of the germinal elements must necessarily end in failure and disappointment. The generative forces at work within the parent organisms are nicely adjusted, or in a state of equilibrium with those which are concerned in the conduct of the ordinary physiological activities of the parent body. It is, therefore, imperatively necessary to consider the question of sex not simply as one involving embryological data, but rather as embracing the sum total of physiological energies of the parent organisms, and where the sexes are separate these energies must be considered as represented in the species by the sexually differentiated individuals composing the latter.

It will be obvious to those who have kept pace with the growth of physical science, that sexuality may be thus brought more nearly within the dominion of purely physical laws. In other words, sexuality is a question involving the discussion of matter and its energy of motion, and should be so treated if it is expected to reach conclusions which are in harmony with the genius of modern science.

That such a project may be accomplished in the present state of our knowledge may well be doubted, yet there is ample reason to warrant making an attempt to clear the ground for further work in that direction.

The attempt to trace the ways in which one form of reproduction gave place to a more complex one in the next higher type is beyond the scope of the present paper. To consider this question adequately would require a far more extensive acquaintance with the facts than is possible at present. In plants it would require a consideration of the modifying effect of the evolution of a mechanical supporting system and the correlative modifications which this must have induced in the sexual processes, since the evolution of powerful supporting axes, which were capable of indefinite growth, dichotomy, and consequent multiplication of fertile apical axes enabled the plant to multiply the possibilities of the production of male and female prothalli, or of protected and attached macrospores and dehiscent microspores. Not only this, but aërial currents would now become available, as the plants become taller, in carrying the microspores, or male prothalli, as pollen grains, from one flower to another. Finally, this was supplemented by flying insects, which, it is fair to assume, first began to visit the plants for the sake of their microspores or pollen as food. Later, as these insects began to set up irritations in the flowers, there is reason to think that the surfaces which they habitually abraded would, if wetted with saccharine solutions regurgitated by such visitants, begin to pour out additional nectar or saccharine matters in obedience to well-known rules of ormotic action. That such a result would happen is, at any rate, strongly indicated by the experimental results obtained by my colleague, Prof. W. P. Wilson, in wetting abraded surfaces of leaves with saccharine solutions. The elaboration of sweets so begun would be a stimulus, causing the insect world to become still more interested

in the flowers, and such may have been the further effect of the new diet upon insect life as to be directly responsible for the evolution of those wonderful insect communities developed amongst the honey-loving hymenoptera or bees. The further consequences of entomophilous traits developed by plants must react in other ways, probably through epinasty and hyponasty, in modifying the shapes of flowers, while protandry, a natural consequence of the earlier maturation of the andrœcium, as a lower whorl of the flower, would eventually tend to establish cross-fertilization, through insect agency, as an imperative necessity, and not wholly, perhaps, because cross-fertilization meant the production of a more vigorous offspring.

The gradual evolution of sexuality by slow stages in plants is now so well understood, that it is not necessary to enter into the details which may be found in any standard botanical text-book. It is sufficient to indicate that the transition from asexuality to female macrogonidia and male microgonidia is effected by mere differentiation of cells as respects their size. From naked oöspores to carpospores is the next step, with microscopic flagellate male elements. Finally, the prothallus appears, first, with both oöspheres and antherozoids; then the prothalli themselves become distinguished as small male and large female ones; then the female prothallus is no longer at once detached, but becomes covered in, while the minute male prothallus still dehisces, but finally becomes partially parasitic upon the stigma where it vegetates and throws out a hollow process, which serves to convey the now highly modified antherozoid to the ovicell. The prolonged adherence of the female prothallus to the parent axis enables the next important step to be taken in the evolution of the seed containing a viviparously produced embryo provided with a store of nutriment and protective envelopes.

In this way the superimposition of more and more successful means of reproduction seems to have occurred in plants, tending also to secure the final victory of the phanerogams over all other rivals in the struggle for existence, largely through the evolution of viviparity as supposed above. How much of this success was due to the principle of overgrowth or cumulative integration, which made rapid, continuous assimilation and growth possible through the evolution of a mechanical supporting system, is hard to tell, but it doubtless was quite as important a factor as natural selection itself.

Similar conclusions are borne in upon the zoölogist in a study of the reproductive processes in the animal world. From asexual fragmentation and consequent multiplication, the advance to larger and smaller, or female and male elements, was a gradual one, with or without hermaphroditism. Then came hermaphroditism with large female and small male germs, then maleness and femaleness, as characterizing distinct individuals of the same species. Finally, protective processes were developed, accompanied by ovulation, followed by parental care, such as incubation, nidification, gestation with or without placentation, and at last, in the highest forms, lactation was developed.

These processes seem to have grown up as if superimposed upon each other, just as it can be shown that the progress of embryological ontogenetic development has followed as a consequence of the superimposition of one morphological complication upon the immediately preceding one, and often as a consequence of direct adaptation. Similarly, the inclusion of the germ tracts, as morphological advances shut off the gut-pouches from the archenteron, became more decided. The complexity of the outlets for the reproductive products, at first by way of the nephridia, as these were fused into a serially connected system, became more marked, the sexual products were now discharged through the passages serving also for the emission of the urinary secretion. Finally, this passage became divided lengthwise, so as to serve for the separate discharge of the urinary and sexual products, until at last the lower end of the reproductive channel became modified into a brood chamber or uterus for the viviparous development of the young, accompanied with sexual intercourse, now rendered possible by the further modification of the extreme outer portions of the reproductive passages and the parts immediately adjacent to them.

Pari passu with the higher development of the reproductive processes the fertility of the female became absolutely reduced, partly in consequence of the precocious overgrowth of the female germs through a primary suppression of the tendency to spontaneous segmentation of such germs, as will be more fully illustrated later. This reduction in the fertility of the female gonads is also doubtless correlated with the increased chances of the survival of the offspring produced by the more protective methods of reproduction, while the material diverted from ovogenesis, to carry on the formation of secondary egg-envelopes, incubation, nidification, gestation, placentation, lactation and other parental care, also reacts directly upon fertility, while the great lengthening of the period of fœtal and infantile development, tends to still further reduce the possibilities of rapid reproduction. The recurrence of the seasons tends to make the reproductive periods annual in all forms except the lowest asexual, and the highest form, man, who lives under approximately uniform artificial conditions of his own creating. There is, therefore, a widespread tendency toward a reduction of the fertility of most forms below what it would be if there existed uniformly favorable conditions throughout the year, due solely to the recurrence of unfavorable annual periods.

The fertility of the male, or rather his functional activity, may be affected in a corresponding manner by the seasons, but the absolute fertility of the male as compared to the number of germs produced is invariably greater than that of the female, usually by many thousandfold. This greater male fertility depends upon the minute size and rapid production of male elements through the breaking down of protova—spermatogonia—and the rapid integration of chromatin or nucleoplasm as will be shown later. Such a rapid and abundant production of male elements may be one of the causes leading to the persistent pursuit of the

female by the male, and one of the causes of the genesis of sexual passion as interpreted farther on. Sexual passion, which accompanies the highest forms of reproduction, finally becomes functional in this intricate series of superimposed processes as a means tending to maintain the fertility of all the females of a species at its highest point of efficiency, and thus reacts as an aid in the survival of species. The superabundant fertility of the male renders the possibility of the conjugation of the male and female elements more certain, under the favor of the various devices which have been evolved to effect that process, and thus again be the means of assuring reproduction and the survival of the species.

The necessary correlation of the male and female is probably secondary. In my view, that the flagellate forms are the oldest, since they are certainly the simplest and minutest, the male element represents, morphologically, a perpetuation of the most primitive form of organized existence. Through cumulative integration the germ elements, which would otherwise have tended to break down into flagellate germs, have, on the contrary, been impelled to grow to large dimensions as ova, through the rapid access of nutriment to them, which probably prevented their cytoplasm from having time to elaborate nucleoplasm and chromatin, and thus become male in character. The male element is certainly the most ancient, the female is a secondary and later product of evolution. The correlation of the male and female was, therefore, secondary; the male elements represent, morphologically, the primordial asexual type. The primitive representative of the male element was at one time "maternal," through simple fission and a capacity for growth; it became "paternal" through conjugation. Sexuality was the outcome of the unequal growth of germ-cells of the same species, induced by the self-regulative influences exerted by internal physiological conditions operating under the influence of varying external conditions. The determination of the sex of an embyro has depended in some way upon a tendency, early established through some internal equilibration of the forces of growth, in response to outer conditions of nutrition, etc. There is no conclusive evidence tending to show that the sex of an embryo is predetermined in the egg; on the contrary, much evidence exists tending to show that the sex of an embryo may be influenced by an increase or diminution of the supply of food.

It is a curious circumstance to note that many writers on sex seem to have failed to see that the sexual cells of multicellular forms were functionless, in that they exercise no physiological function which is essential to the life of the parent organism. In that such functionless cells could not disintegrate their substance through the active metabolism which obtained in respect to all the other cells of the body, in consequence of the action of the principle of cumulative integration or assimilation beyond the current physiological needs of the body, they must either increase enormously in size and become ova, or run down as a result of rapid karyokinesis into minute male elements which are rapidly dehisced and set free. It is

this exemption of the germ-cells from the disintegrating effects of active or functional metabolism which has given the first impulse to the accumulation of yolk and the overgrowth of the spermatogonia, ending in the production of the ovum and the essentially female condition. The apical position in many plants of the female germ is significant in this connection, no less than the fact observed by Mr. Meehan, that in conifers the female flowers are produced at the apex of the tree and by the most vigorous shoots.

The Origin of Karyokinesis, the Significance of the Polar Bodies, Variability, Sexual Passion and Sex in Relation to the Genesis of Species.

It is a remarkable fact that in the lowest forms of life no evidence of karyokinetic changes has ever been noticed. Spores are produced within the body of the parent individual by the direct fragmentation of the slightly more chromatophilous or deeply staining portion of the parent plasma that fills nearly the whole of the latter, so that it is still not possible to speak of a nucleus in contradistinction to a cell-body of cytoplasm in these organisms. These facts tend to show that in such very low forms there is still a want of mobility of the plasma itself as well as a lack of differentiation into nuclear and cytoplasmic matter.* Is or is not the want of a differentiation of cytoplasm associated with the absence of karyokinetic phenomena? There is much reason to assume that it is from the consideration of a great variety of facts, mainly those observed in the earlier stages of development of higher sexually produced forms.

The main argument in favor of such a view is the circumstance which has fallen under the eyes of every investigator, that the karyokinetic phenomena are most pronounced in the earlier stages and on a larger scale than in the later stages when the cells become smaller. This is either associated with a larger proportional amount of cytoplasm or it is independent of it. So far as observation has extended, the facts of early segmentation tend to favor the first alternative of the foregoing proposition. Another body of facts is equally favorable to such an interpretation, namely, that of spermatogenesis. It is true that many forms of spermatogenesis are known where karyokinesis is maintained up to the time that the spermatic elements are beginning to form, but there are many other cases known where this is not the case and where during the later stages of spermatogenesis leading to the fragmentation of the spermatogonia there is no evidence of accompanying karyokinesis. These facts tend to show that, with the gradual diminution of the amount of investing cyto-

* De Bary, in his Lectures on Bacteria, affirms that a nucleus is wanting in the Schizomycetes, and the only case where these forms have been known to exhibit amœboid movements, so as to throw out processes, is that described by Prof. Samuel G. Dickson, of this city; at least I have been unable to find any other instances of the kind described. There appears to be little cytoplasm in these forms, so that these organisms correspond mainly to the nuclei of the cells of higher types.

plasm, the process of karyokinesis or movement of the fragments of chromatin is finally restricted to such an extent, from the want of a cytoplasmic field, that nuclear movement is at last rendered impossible.

Much as the lengthening of the spermatozoön resembles a diastolic phase of karyokinesis, there is no evidence that the elongation of the male element preparatory to being set free, can be identified in any case with such a final karyokinetic diastolic phase. If this were so it might be supposed that the momentum of karyokinesis, in this case, had reached a potential state or condition of tension ready to exhibit itself as segmentation, as soon as there was a large enough cytoplasmic field, as in the cytoplasm of the egg, in which the opposite condition of systole could occur, and thus bring back the nucleus to a condition of equilibrium.

While the foregoing conclusion cannot be assumed, it may be assumed that the male cells, in undergoing their rapid multiplication, do acquire a certain karyokinetic momentum predisposing them to set up segmentation in other functionless plasmic bodies—ova—which they may enter. Yet, as we have seen, karyokinesis is not always an accompaniment of spermatogenesis, a condition which may arise, as supposed above, from the gradual diminution of the cytoplasmic field.

The method of evolution of spermatozoa is not uniform in all cases. In *Ostrea edulis* there are rarely individuals in which spermatogenesis approximates that of *O. virginica.* Then, rarely, intermediate forms occur between this and the normal form, where large masses of chromatin are formed by direct elaboration from the nuclei of elements which cannot be regarded as other than ova. In the latter case the metabolism which leads to the development of spermatozoa is clearly carried a step further than in ovogenesis, because the huge masses of chromatin imbedded in the ova from which the nuclei of the spermatozoa are formed are very certainly developed *after* the stage is reached which answers to that of the mature ovum. The male condition is reached therefore in this last case after the female, and is an outgrowth of the latter consequent upon the development of large masses of chromatin in the egg and its direct fragmentation into the nuclei of spermatozoa. In those cases where the spermatozoa are developed more directly from smaller cells which never reach the dimensions of ova, we have a totally different case, and one which indicates a protandrous tendency. The other case where the male condition depends upon the previous development of a fully differentiated female state of the germ-cells obviously corresponds to a protogynous condition.

The formation of chromatin in the last case does not proceed as a result of metabolism and growth following a rapid series of karyokineses alternating with periods of rest, but follows the formation of a female nucleus in which a rapid endogenous formation of chromatin first occurs, followed, as it increases in bulk, by the extrusion of the chromatin from the parent nucleus into the surrounding cytoplasm, where it breaks up into small masses which are later separated in large groups as the nuclear basis of large coherent clumps of spermatozoa.

Clearly, then, the amount of chromatin in relation to the amount of cytoplasm varies all the way from an almost inappreciable quantity in the nucleus of the true egg to a very great quantity in proportion to the cytoplasm in the egg which produces a large quantity of chromatin from its nucleus to provide the material for the nuclei of the multitudes of spermatozoa to which such an egg gives rise.

Maleness, therefore, in the case of *Ostrea edulis* is certainly, and probably in all other forms, a condition where the chromatin preponderates over the amount of cytoplasm, while, conversely, femaleness is characterized by the preponderance of cytoplasm over chromatin or nuclear matter ; that is to say in the sexual elements only.

Such a preponderance is not simply relative, it is absolute as respects the one or the other of the primary germ-constituents. It is also a fact that the amount of chromatin or nucleoplasm in an egg-nucleus, when nearly mature, is in excess, as expressed in volumes, by at least four times that of the chromatin contained in the mature male element of the same species. Does this last fact signify anything in reference to the expulsion of the polar bodies? It probably does if the interpretation of the polar bodies presently to be offered is true. And that that interpretation probably is true or more nearly true than any other yet offered, will become clearer as we proceed, since it imports nothing into the discussion of the data which is not in conformity with the facts of continuous growth or which must be brought in in order to save previously suggested hypothesis. It postulates only continuous growth under the condition of an excess of nutrition beyond that required in the secular exhibition of the physiological activities of living forms. It supposes that this excess is somehow influenced in one of two ways, that is, it is either preponderatingly converted into chromatin or preponderatingly into cytoplasm.

If mainly into cytoplasm, the process may go on until the cytoplasm itself may tend to run down chemically into the more stable conditions of oils, or yolk granules and tablets consisting of simpler molecular units. This last process may go on until an enormous yolk is developed which is composed of inert or immobile nutritive matters, while the active cytoplasm itself may become small in amount and reduced to a relatively small volume.* Such a process never occurs in the male. Here karyokinetic processes keep the upper hand (not necessarily katabolic ones, or those leading to destructive metabolism), and the result is that the male element tends to be reduced in dimensions with no katabolically simplified contents, such as are met with in many eggs, but, on the contrary, consisting mainly of plasma in a highly anabolic condition as chromatin.

How these differences on the sexual elements are produced is not known, but it is certain that they must be produced by the action of the physio-

*This is so clearly in its general features a katabolic process, that it is impossible to see how Geddes and Thomson can reconcile this with their hypothesis that the egg is anabolic, while the male element is essentially katabolic (see their work, "The Evolution of Sex," New York, 1890.)

logical activities of the parent organism modified or swayed toward maleness or femaleness, through some series of correlated influences which are self-regulated in some way through nutrition, in the struggle of the parts of the parent organism with each other for their allotment of nutriment.

So far, the evidence tends to indicate that the egg is a repressed condition of maleness. That is, the high anabolic condition of the male element is the consequence of unimpeded growth resulting in rapid segmentation, while the female element is in some respects katabolic with an unimpeded growth of its cytoplasmic constituents accompanied by a repression of the capacity for segmentation.

The peculiar conditions of growth of the egg, and its usual trait of great size, constitute probably the real essence of the meaning of sex, as a means of favoring, in an increased ratio, the survival of offspring.

The preponderance in the actual volume of the chromatin of the egg, over that of the spermatozoön, expresses a physiological differentiation not reached by the latter so much more quickly matured. This might be due to the fact that the cytoplasm in the male element is smaller in amount than that of the egg, and may be coördinated or physiologically controlled by less chromatin. On such a basis the hypothesis of Minot and Balfour might be rehabilitated in part, but not on the erroneous basis of sexuality as they supposed, but upon the far more significant one of physiological differentiation or division of labor.

Maleness is characterized, in the male element, by the absence of a cytoplasmic field in which nuclear motion or karyokinesis can occur. With this in the male element goes an inability, after sexuality is fully established, to maintain further nutrition and growth without the help of the female element.

Femaleness, on the other hand, is characterized by the presence of an enormous cytoplasmic field in the midst of which there is placed a large nuclear body containing proportionally to its envelope of cytoplasm a very small amount of chromatin. Such a germ is incapable, except under the antecedent stimulus of exceedingly vigorous processes of growth, as in the case of parthenogenesis, of spontaneously beginning and maintaining an orderly process of karyokinetic movement leading to further metabolism growth and development, unless "fertilized" or fused with the male element.

The tendency in the male cell is towards a preponderance of chromatin, in the female cell towards a preponderance of cytoplasm. The elaboration of the chromatin in the male clearly takes place in some cases at the expense of cytoplasm; the elaboration of cytoplasm in the female is possibly at the expense of chromatin, and certainly at the expense of the prolonged exercise of the function of the latter as an essential part of the egg nucleus.

These processes in the two sexes admit of further contrasts. The cytoplasm is mobile and amœboid and the immediate instrument of intussusception of new material. The chromatin, on the other hand, while

appearing to centrally control this process, is never immediately, but only mediately involved in its execution. No cases are recorded where the chromatin shares directly or immediately in the process of digestion or intussusception of new matter, except possibly the Bacteria or Schizomycetes.

The female cell previous to final maturity has been involved in the accumulation of the cytoplasm; in this process its chromatin has been indirectly involved and has increased in volume proportionally. This same fact is illustrated in the increased dimensions and complexity of the nucleus as growth in cytoplasmic dimensions increases in even such simple forms as *Amœba*, as may be clearly seen in Leidy's monograph upon the Rhizopods of North America, where the changes in the relative proportions and arrangement of these substances are fully illustrated in the progress from the young to the adolescent stages.

There is therefore ground for the belief that there is a certain minimal proportion of chromatin necessary for every cell which is necessary to maintain its physiological integrity. In the egg cell the chromatin must share in the constructive metabolism involved in the prolonged growth necessary to mature the ovum. It is not improbable that this function of sharing in constructive metabolism and not in that of karyokinesis has rendered the egg incapable of spontaneous segmentation, unless it be the product of a tremendous energy of growth and conditions of assimilation, as in the case of parthenogenetic ova.

Not only the chromatin, but also the whole of the rest of the nucleoplasm of the egg, is probably, like that of any other physiological differentiated cell of the parent body thus rendered in most cases incapable of undergoing immediately the spontaneous changes necessary to cause the beginning of development.

The equilibration of forces leading to the growth of male and female elements, respectively, in the parent organism is in some way self-adjusted or self-regulated. It is probably true that in many cases there is good reason to assume that the eggs are more favorably situated in reference to supplies of nutriment than the spermatogonia, or conditions subsist which tend to repress spermatogonial segmentation.

Such a view may be fortified with a great host of facts drawn from the relations of the male and female reproductive organs, in many forms, to the sources of nutriment. In many cases the ovaries are clearly in a more direct and favorable relation to the sources of supply of nutriment than the testes, as in many Bryozoa, for example. Or the source of supply of nutriment for the reproductive organs is more remote for the testes than it is for the ovaries, as is actually the case in many forms, notably a large proportion of mammals where a *descensus testiculorum* supervenes. Or, in other cases, the surplus nutritive matters are competed for within the organism by structures which are usually described as belonging to the category of the secondary sexual characters. Or, in another very large class of data, we have evidence tending to show that the ovum is placed

under conditions of growth, or is encapsuled within a porous basement membrane—the zona radiata—so as to favor from every point on its surface its cumulative growth in bulk, rather than its cleavage or segmentation within the parent, which would end in its breaking up into male elements. The male elements, on the other hand, are not encapsuled, at least in a very large proportion of cases, and are free to grow in another way without an intracapsular repression of karyokinetic processes. It would be an easy matter to cite multitudes of facts in support of the argument here offered, though I am aware that strong counter-arguments might be produced, yet I do not believe that they are anything like as weighty as the affirmative evidence.

Again, all the facts tend to prove that the recurrence of male forms in parthenogenetic types is associated with a decrease of the supply of nutriment and a slight lowering of temperature.

How do these facts comport with the data in our possession respecting the manner of development of the characteristic male plasma or chromatin? We find that after a certain limit of size has been attained by the egg or spermatogonium in *Ostrea edulis* that the evolution of chromatin begins and with this process the production and freeing of spermatozoa. It looks as if the chromatin or characteristically male plasma required a longer time for its elaboration than the cytoplasm, which is in consonance with fact. In other words chromatin can be formed only from previously elaborated cytoplasm, and the latter when its sources of nutriment are cut off or diminished tends, in virtue of its freedom from any functional duty in the parent body to be built up into a still more complex molecular form, as chromatin. Or the struggle of cells in the gonads for nutriment may tend towards the male condition provided all take part, and spermatozoa result; if only a few take part in the struggle, under encapsuled or other conditions unfavorable to the elaboration of chromatin and karyokinesis, the female or large celled type of germ is formed.

That something of this nature must occur is evident if we contemplate the problem from the purely morphological side, but with the physiological aspect of the matter still in view. The chromatin is primitively the most central element of the plasmic contents of the cell. It is the most homogeneous of all cell contents; it is least like an emulsion of any of the cellular constituents. In that it is the most distantly removed from the periphery of all the cell-contents and the latest to appear when developed in great quantity from the nuclei of egg-like spermatogonia, it is the highest and latest product of cellular metabolism. It is therefore clear that the element of time is to be considered, and that chromatin or the most characteristic plasmic basis of the male element is the end-product of the untrammeled exhibition of the energies of functionless or sexual protoplasm. It is upon this ground that it is safe to assume that the male element is the primary one and that the female element is secondary and has arisen through a repression of the processes which lead to the metamorphosis of cytoplasm into chromatin. The male state is therefore the

oldest; the female the youngest. The male state also as represented in the spermatic body tends to revert to the most ancient form of all free mobile organisms, namely, the flagellate Schizomycetes. The tendency towards maleness is therefore also to be identified with a universal tendency of all organisms to recapitulate the most ancient and primitive of living conditions when organisms existed only in watery or fluid media. The further generalizations that all organisms tend to recapitulate the primæval monadiform condition is also fully justified, and that the really primordial type of the germs of all living forms is a flagellate cell and not an ovum. This will become clearer, as it will be later shown that the ovum is secondary and is really a germ which has been arrested in its attempt to reach the flagellate condition, and that the polar bodies are merely the expression of an expiring tendency in the egg to revert to the male or primæval flagellate condition.

The genesis of sexuality itself is merely incidental to the continuous processes of growth manifested by all living forms. It is an outgrowth of self-regulated processes of nutrition and of the repulsion of accumulations of surplus nutriment to parts of the organization of multicellular forms where it is not in the way of the other physiological activities. This is the real significance and origin of the process of the isolation of germinal matter. It is not a "device" or an "expedient" specially contrived for the preservation of the immortality of "germ-plasma," which was not first "set aside" in Metazoa, as held by Weismann, but which began to be pushed aside and out of the way in Protozoa, as many facts show even as low down in the scale as Amœba, thus placing Lendl's criticisms of Weismann upon the basis of fact.*

We have seen that the female and male germs can be actually contrasted only on the ground that they are constituted of two kinds of plasma in different proportions. We have also seen that the chromatin presumably preponderates in the lowest living forms, which are also universally asexual but capable of the most prodigious rates of multiplication owing to rapid growth of their substance (mainly chromatin-like) under favorable conditions. These lowest forms are also flagellate, probably universally so under certain conditions. In the next stage of evolution the tendency is for certain cells to grow to a large size and then break down into flagellate spores which are alike and constitute the germs of the species. The next stage is where certain of these enlarged cells break down into flagellate spores of unequal size, the larger become female and the smaller male and incipient sexuality is developed. The process may even begin with the conjugation of similar binucleated individual cells, as in ciliate Protozoa, but there again the production of the spermatic plasma

* In this connection see Brass, "Die Zelle das Element der Organischen Welt," pp. 63–65. Leipzig, 1889. Also Lendl, "Hypothese über die Entstehung von Soma- und Propagations-Zellen." Berlin, 1889. Also Lillie E. Holman, "Observation on Multiplication in Amœbæ." Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philad., pp. 346–348, 1886. Leidy's "Rhizopods N. America," where the chromatin balls of the nuclei are figured as being expelled from the nucleus and the animal presumably as germs.

or chromatin proceeds in a way which may be compared to an endogenous or intraplasmic fragmentation of the chromatin substance, part of which is probably not functional as the nucleus, so that even here the germinal matter is "set aside" contrary to the assumption of Weismann, who only finds such a process taking place in Metazoa. These binucleated forms have one macronucleus functional and another sexual micronucleus which is not functional in the ordinary life processes of the species. It is this latter which multiplies and grows at the expense of the cytoplasm of the parent cell, so as to form not only the material for the new micronucleus but also that of the new macronucleus, the old macronucleus when exhausted being disintegrated and absorbed by the cytoplasm. In this case the process of conjugation signified a reconstitution of the exhausted macronucleus, a process which always occurs in some forms only when the cytoplasm of the parent is free from unelaborated and non-assimilated constituents. An excess of chromatin and nucleoplasm is produced, part of which becomes the functional nucleus and part is thrust aside as a quiescent functionless body, the micronucleus. When conjugation occurs it acts as a stimulus, causing the rapid growth and division of the micronucleus at the expense of the cytoplasm of both individuals which are not feeding during this process. The reconstitution of the nucleus is therefore to be interpreted in terms of continuous growth and as a physiological process which is directly adaptive under the conditions of morphological differentiation attained by these organisms. The reciprocal fusion of one of the nuclear bodies produced by a subdivision of the micronucleus is to be understood in the way which will be indicated later.

The death and loss of the power of coördination of movement shown by the cytoplasm of lower unicellular forms, when the nucleus with its chromatin is removed, simply demonstrates the transcendent physiological importance of the nucleus as a directive centre. This view is also sustained by the fact that ultimate nerve terminations in the Metazoa are lost in some cases within the nucleus. The effects produced by the artificial removal of the nucleus in impairing the power of growth and reproduction are due to the destruction of the physiological equilibrium between the chromatin and cytoplasm as well as the morphological integrity of the individual. It does not necessarily mean that the nucleus is the reproductive agent, but rather that this highest end-product of protoplasmic metabolism is the central object for which the investing cytoplasm labors. Neither can, probably, become the centre of reproductive energy or the energy of growth in absolute independence of the other, notwithstanding the fact that there is an apparent absence of the nucleus in Monera, while the cytoplasm is reduced to a minimum in Schizomycetes.

The conjugation of ciliated Infusoria therefore becomes plainly a process wherein the nucleus has the usual reproductive function through division of labor coupled with an adaptive arrangement by which a physiological substitution of an old for a new nucleus is effected, while the act of conjugation is merely the stimulus through which the active functions

are diverted into another channel ending in the metabolism of both individuals manifesting itself in the production of a larger amount of fresh chromatin, capable of taking upon itself the work of the former nucleus, a part being pushed or "set aside" as a functionless surplus ready to be stimulated to growth through conjugation. Maupas' theory of senescence may therefore be regarded as in the highest degree probable, in that in those cases where conjugation has long been in abeyance the stimulus of growth leading to the production of an abundance of chromatin has been absent. From this point of view the Infusoria present a most specialized type of reproductive activity in which the cytoplasm and chromatin have never been freed or separated from each other as marking independent sexual states in which these two cellular constituents have preponderated, as the female and male respectively. In other words, the Infusoria are practically oösperms which are reciprocally stimulated to reproductive activity through the act of conjugation.

The ovum of the Metazoa is in the same case with the Infusoria, but behaves differently because it is purely an ovum. Here the polar bodies are to be regarded as exhausted chromatin or nucleoplasm with a decidedly male tendency in that the cytoplasm investing them is usually small in amount. The polar bodies are to be regarded as representing not only the disintegrated macronucleus but also the disintegrated fragments of the first or preparatory stages of division of the micronucleus. While the products of the fusion of the pronuclei of Infusoria again contrast with the fusion products of the pronuclei of Metazoa, in that they are at once divided into a functional or physiological and a functionless or reproductive nucleus. In the Metazoa the separation of reproductive functions from the other physiological ones is effected through cell-division and does not coëxist in two nuclei lying side by side in the cytoplasm of the same cell.

Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that the chromatin of the egg is partly exhausted, as it is in the Infusoria, and must be got rid of in part in order to regenerate the remaining chromatin through a process of growth accompanied by active karyokineses. This exhaustion supervenes upon the prolonged exercise of its physiological function in building up a large amount of investing cytoplasm under conditions which have interfered with the normal segmentation of the whole into cells no larger than those of the rest of the body. The characteristic overgrowth of the ovum beyond the size of its companions in the body of a Metazoan, is the real ground of the specialization of the egg through which it may be supposed that part of its nuclear matter has been exhausted through prolonged exercise of the physiological functions of the nucleus. It will be seen that this view is similar to that of Weismann, but it is more specific. Accordingly the degree of specialization of an ovum must influence the extent to which its nucleus is exhausted. Parthenogenetic ova are for obvious reasons to be regarded as less specialized than those which are not parthenogenetic. This hypothesis therefore fits in well with the fact of the

decrease of the number of polar bodies in the eggs of many parthenogenetic forms, in which the period of growth of the eggs is often shortened, and where the physiological function of the chromatin in the constructive metabolism of the egg is exerted over a less prolonged period. The result is that the exhausted chromatin or nucleoplasm which is to be expelled from some parthenogenetic ova is just half that of the other type requiring fertilization. Such a separation and regeneration leave enough chromatin or nucleoplasm behind to initiate development by beginning a spontaneous and continuous fission of the egg without the access of the male element. This I believe, however, to be only a partial explanation of the causes leading to the expulsion of the polar bodies, since the genesis of the ovum itself remains unexplained. The specialization of the ovum and its hypertrophy as a cell is connected in another way with the operation of the processes of continuous growth, and with the evolution of the primæval form of germs which were unquestionably flagellate. That the ovum is the most specialized cell of the two kinds of sexual cellular types found in Metazoa there can be no doubt.

If it is true that the only thing that stands in the way of the development of any cell of the body into a germ is its physiological and morphological specialization, then the egg with its mass of cytoplasm in excess of that of any cell in the body is certainly a morphologically and physiologically specialized cell-unit. The expulsion of the polar bodies brings it back to an unspecialized condition, in which its nucleus (the female pronucleus) no longer bears any imprint of its former physiological specialization which it had acquired during the elaboration of its bulky mass of cytoplasm.

The history of the spermatic body, or cell, is exactly the reverse of the preceding. If protandrously developed, karyokinetic or fissive processes go on more rapidly from the start than processes of growth through constructive metabolism and spermatozoa result. If the spermatic body is produced through a protogynous process and from large cells simulating ova, the fissive tendency again finally obtains the upper hand, but only after a certain maximum size of the female cells is reached, when they may be recognized as ova. The tendency towards maleness is thus constantly against any persistence of a condition favoring constructive metabolism in the direction of the elaboration of cytoplasm. In fact, so rapidly does the fissive process go on, that the nuclei of the spermatic or male cells have no opportunity to acquire any physiological function, such as that enjoyed by the nucleus of the egg. The tendency in the male cells is rather to intensify the tendencies of metabolism towards the elaboration of chromatin only, carrying the latter process so far that little or no field of cytoplasm finally remains in which fission or nuclear movement can occur; nay, many instances are known where even the remaining remnant of the cytoplasm is cast off from the spermatozoön previous to maturity, this being in exact contrast again with the extrusion of a part of the egg's chromatin as polar bodies. The rapidity of the successive processes of

fission in the course of the development of the male cell is such as to give its quiescent nucleus, in its restricted cytoplasmic field, a karyokinetic momentum, so to speak, which will be expressed as segmentation as soon as it is fused with the female pronucleus in a large cytoplasmic field, in the egg, where karyokinesis or nuclear motion again becomes possible.

In the same way the tendency towards developing a karyokinetic momentum must occur in the egg, owing to the limited number of rapidly successive karyokineses in the expulsion of the physiologically differentiated chromatin in the form of the polar bodies, which may themselves manifest subsequent spontaneous segmentation, or even make abortive unions with spermatozoa, which are abortive only, probably, because of the small size of the cytoplasmic field. If the results of Hertwig and Boveri in fertilizing non-nucleated fragments of the cytoplasm of the eggs of Echinoderms are correctly reported, it is certain that the spermatozoön is in a condition of karyokinetic tension, which lacks only a cytoplasmic field in which to find expression as segmentation.

The views here developed also harmonize with what is known of the behavior of the nuclei of conjugating *Infusoria*. It is only the *micronuclei* or *paranuclei* which enter into the reciprocal conjugation. The macronuclei or functional centres of control of the physiological energies of these animals never enter into the process, but are disintegrated and lost in the cytoplasm, while some of the new micronuclei now formed become, after conjugation and reciprocal fertilization, the new functional or physiological nucleus, and one or two remain, for the time being, at least, as passive, and probably functionless, micronuclei.*

It may be supposed by some that the foregoing account is merely a recapitulation of Weismann's hypothesis respecting the significance of the polar bodies. Not so; Weismann's very elaborate and artificial methods have no charm for me. He is continually trammeled by his own cumbersome hypothesis of a germ-plasma. But he is probably right as far as assuming that the first polar body represents chromatin of a "histogenetic" character, but I should say in a totally different sense from that which he implies. I should also agree with him that it is expelled in order that the egg may revert to its unspecialized condition, but again in a widely different sense from that which he holds.

Unfortunately for Weismann, he renders his hypothesis utterly improbable from the necessity of working out a second hypothesis to account for the expulsion of the second polar body, in order to save his first unfounded assumption respecting the immortality of the germ-plasma. That doctrine, driven to its logical conclusion, leads ultimately to the molecular disintegration of the vast series of ancestral plasmas, finally present in the egg in the course of a vast series of generations. Accordingly the only way to save his hypothesis was, as soon as certain parthenogenetic

*In this I follow the recent researches of Maupas: "La Rajeunissement Karyogamique chez les Ciliés." Arch. Zool. Exper. et Generale. 2e Ser., Tome vii, Nos. 1 and 2, 1889. Pp. 149–320 *et seq.*

eggs were discovered by him, to expel only one polar body; to make use of this new fact in such a way as to make the expulsion of the second polar body in perfectly sexual forms, remove a certain proportion of the ancestral germ-plasma, else, in time, the subdivisions of the ancestral plasmas would ultimately be so great in number as to destroy, by repeated division, the molecular integrity of the molecules representing such ancestral plasmas. Unfortunately for such an hypothesis, Nature does not work through foresight and does not anticipate such difficulties, and he is unable to produce the slightest evidence that she does. Organisms do not possess the power to foresee the remote consequences of their processes; they respond directly to conditions, or not at all.

The logic of this argument of Weismann is exactly similar to that used by Balfour in reference to the polar bodies in his "Comparative Embryology" (i, p. 63), when he says "that the function of forming the polar cells has been acquired by the ovum for the express purpose of preventing parthenogenesis." This implies that the egg possesses foresight of harm coming to it through falling into a parthenogenetic habit! And when Weismann proceeds to elaborate his necessary hypothesis of a reduction of ancestral germ-plasmas, and says "this *must* be so," he seems to forget altogether about the probably self-regulating physiological factors controlling the dimensions of cells and their proportions of chromatin and cytoplasm.

The same difficulty was perceived in a somewhat different form and very pointedly alluded to as fatal to the hypothesis of pangenesis, as early as 1878, by Prof. J. Clerk-Maxwell, in his article, "Atom," in the third volume of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," p. 42.

Lately, however, Platner's discovery that in *Liparis dispar* parthenogenesis occurs with the extrusion of *two* polar globules, is sufficient to render Weismann's hypothesis as to the significance of the second polar body thoroughly untenable.

There is clearly nothing left but to suppose that the polar bodies are an expedient through which the egg returns to a condition of equilibrium different from what it possessed prior to their expulsion. We have no warrant whatever for assuming that this return is other than automatic or comes from other than self-regulated impulses arising within the ovum. Such impulses are very probably merely a manifestation of the attempt to recur to and maintain a continuous process of growth, in the course of which the production of polar bodies is only an incident.

The physiological impulse from within which effects this equilibration works, if my hypothesis has any value, as if certain parts of the egg were to be excreted. In fact, if the hypothesis that the huge mass of cytoplasm represented by an egg is a highly differentiated cell-product, resulting from a very prolonged activity extending sometimes over many months, or even years, of the nucleus and its chromatin, while the spermatic body is produced in a much shorter period, it must necessarily follow that the controlling central nuclear body of the egg would undergo a

corresponding greater specialization and differentiation than that of the spermatozoön.

This view then satisfactorily accounts for the expulsion of the polar bodies and also gives some indication of the significance of the reduction of the cytoplasm of the spermatozoōn or its complete loss, if we regard the egg and spermatozoōn as antipodal expressions of a physiological process of evolution, which has resulted in forming bodies which are complementary to each other in every physiological trait which they present.

Since spermatozoa, also, are very often produced from what are manifestly ova, by the breaking down of the latter and the augmentation of their chromatin, it is clear that the spermatic body is a product derived from the egg by carrying its cleavage farther either by means of the direct or indirect method, but while still attached to the parent or nourished by it. From this consideration it follows that the egg and spermatic body are not homologues before the final maturation of the former. It is, therefore, useless to expect to find any structures thrown off by spermatozoa which are complementary, in the sense implied by Minot and others, to the polar bodies of the egg.

As I have been led to the views expressed above by following a totally different path from Weismann, and as I reject his hypothesis of the physiological isolation of the germ-plasm on the basis of fact, as shown elsewhere,* as incapable alike of proof or of serving a better purpose than a much simpler hypothesis, it seemed best to continue the argument upon the lines begun in earlier papers.

It may, however, be well to point out here that what Weismann means by his "histogenetic" or "ovogenetic" nucleoplasm, I distinctly limit to the genesis of the huge cytoplasmic field or cytoplasm and yolk of the ovum. The egg membranes are basement membranes and it is difficult to say what share the egg had in their formation except in lower forms, so that they are of far less consequence in this discussion than Weismann supposes.

Another point is that parthenogenetic ova are certainly smaller than the fertilized ova of the same species, in some forms, though this is not always the case. This fact, however, is in accord with the hypothesis of the polar bodies set forth above. The mode of feeding the queen bee † shows, also, that parthenogenetic eggs, or those capable of developing in that way, are probably produced through the expenditure of less energy in the parent organism than those which develop only in the sexual way in strictly sexual forms. The connection of these facts with the explanation offered of the expulsion of the polar bodies is so obvious that it hardly needs to be indicated.

It has been made clear that the overgrowth of the egg has resulted in its specialization, but the question still remains, What led to such an over-

*"A Physiological Hypothesis of Heredity and Variation." *American Naturalist*, pp. 85–92, xxiv, 1890.

† Cheshire, "Bees and Bee Keeping," Vol. i, pp. 82–85.

growth of the ovum? This, I believe, may be answered on the supposition already to some extent elaborated that the egg is an abortive attempt at the production of an overgrown spermatogonium which is set free before it has been fully matured, as a result of the precocious determination of superabundance of surplus nutriment to it.

This has been due to forces operating within the parent organism; how, we are still unable to clearly state. If this is so, then the specialization of the egg is accounted for and the expulsion of the polar bodies may be approached from another point of view, namely, that of their morphological equivalence to spermatozoa, since they represent largely the characteristically male plasma in their chromatin. The egg is, therefore, specialized in so far as it is an abortive spermatogonium, and the number of polar bodies, produced as abortive spermatic elements, represent its degree of specialization. The consequent reduction of the chromatin in the egg nucleus may then also be compared with the processes of spermatogenesis in which a certain minimal size of the chromatin mass of the egg is reached, which now makes the ovum the exact homologue of the spermatozoön, but with an enormous cytoplasmic body fitted for the exhibition of active karyokinetic movements and an elaborate series of successive and finally simultaneous karyokineses.

In this way it may be supposed that the peculiar advantages offered for the survival of a species through sexual processes may be realized.* But such advantages were developed not as the result of any foresight, but as a consequence of the action of the principle of overnutrition ending in the production of spermatogonia which failed to segment or break down into male elements before they were freed from the parent. In this way it may be supposed that the ovum itself arose, but that it was a later phase of development than that of the flagellate male germs, which type still prevails in asexual or very primitive forms. This gives us the real grounds for the evolution of the ovum; accounts for its specialization, for the reduction in volume of its chromatin to that of the male element through the expulsion of the polar bodies, through which it also again becomes the immobile overgrown, but exact morphological homologue of the spermatazoön. The specialization which the ovarian egg has attained as an overgrown spermatogonium also makes it certain that the cells expelled as polar bodies represent the energy in part which has been expended, and which is signified by the great size of the ovarian egg. These products of specialized development must be got rid of so that this part of my hypothesis respecting the polar bodies is a necessary corollary of the first part developed in the earlier portion of this paper.

The impulse towards the expulsion of the polar bodies comes from within, upon the advent of an adequate stimulus, and the tendency is to run down towards the male condition from the egg, but such a result is prevented from proceeding far by the small original amount of chromatin in the egg which prevents the formation of more than two cleavages, on the

* "Origin and Meaning of Sex." *Am. Naturalist*, June, 1889, pp. 501–508.

average, when the chromatin is reduced to a volume equivalent to that of the chromatin in a single spermatozoön of the same species. The tendency towards the expulsion of polar bodies is therefore probably self-regulative as soon as a certain minimum in the size of the chromatin masses is attained. The impulse leading to such a result arises from the presence of a large cytoplasmic field sensitive to external stimuli, but in that such a field is cut off from further possibility of growth by detachment from the parent organism and incapable of further growth except through the stimulus of its chromatin, and in that no more of the latter is for the time being elaborated after detachment, it is clear that the cleavages which give rise to the polar bodies are self-limited in number by conditions arising within the egg, and as a consequence of the specialization of the latter as a cell, and in the sense that it differs from primitive types of cells as a consequence of its method of protected growth within the parent.

Why, however, should the polar bodies be so small? Why does not the egg divide equally? This may be answered on the ground already assumed that the chromatin is yet neither male nor female, but tends universally to be reduced to male dimensions even in the egg. The cytoplasm being the most abundant in the egg and the chromatin in the spermatozoön, it is clear that totally different physiological characters must be offered by the two elements. This, in fact, is the essence of the meaning of the term specialization as applied to them, and involves the conception of wide differences in the modes in which physiological energy has worked to produce them, respectively. If the yolk is abundant, the cytoplasm, at one pole of the egg where nuclear cleavage occurs most readily to form the polar bodies, is reduced to a thin layer or disk. This, in many cases, is the condition under which polar bodies are produced so that a great inequality in the size of the cleavage products must result. Later, when the egg nucleus is reduced and can return to a deeper position in the egg, it can gain control of a still larger cytoplasmic field, which is still further enlarged by the advent of a fresh male chromatin and cytoplasmic element. When the male and female elements finally unite there is a complete readjustment of the equilibrium between the cytoplasm and chromatin centres, because the introduced male is capable of taking control of a still larger cytoplasmic field and may even at times overtop the female, as in the case of *Rhynchelmis* described by Vejdowsky. The two together now regain control of the cytoplasmic field of the egg, but cut off from direct dependence upon the parent, so that a new cycle of changes can go on in a new way, and instead of running down towards the male condition, normal segmentation goes on which ends in the formation of a new being under the impulse of the tendencies towards continuous growth under new conditions. The cases of egg and spermatozoön are clearly merely specialized states of chromatin and cytoplasm and their separated and united conditions are merely phases of a continuous process of growth under widely differing conditions which are ushered in as the results, first, of an incipient and complete exclusion from the parent (formation of polar

bodies and spermatogenesis), and, secondly, as the results of their union as complementary bodies through which a new development is initiated. Their reciprocal saturation of each other also prevents polyspermy and is self-regulative, just as all of the processes of development will ultimately be found to be, and as we have seen good reason for believing must be the case in respect to the polar bodies.

Finally, on our hypothesis it may be said that the chromatin and cytoplasm in the egg bear a certain proportion to each other, regulated in the ovary. The effort to adjust this relation further after the ovum is free (usually) ends in the expulsion of the polar bodies, which represents an effort at the production of male cells, since the egg as a protovum is invariably the prelude to the production of spermatozoa. The ovum precedes the spermatozoön in the order of time, and the latter must be produced from the former. Protogyny is, in the widest sense, therefore universal, since it is only ova-like bodies which can break down into spermatozoa in which chromatin preponderates. But this may be further qualified by the statement that protogynous tendencies greatly developed must finally themselves lead to the development of an ovum with a large cytoplasmic field. Or, in other words, a condition is reached in which great cytoplasmic specialization is attained, so that the expulsion of the polar bodies may be regarded as the expiring effort of protogyny to produce spermatozoa.

If this is so, why do not all ova develop parthenogenetically? Simply because these spermatic elements—polar bodies—are not completely matured or developed, and while the transmitted energy of growth is insufficient. The remaining body with its reduced chromatin is now, however, the equivalent of a spermatozoön but with an enormous cytoplasmic body. It is complementary to the male element in that it is physiologically receptive, and food through karyokinesis for further processes of segmentation. But how about parthenogenetic ova? Why do these develop and why do some of these develop two polar bodies? Here we often, if not always, have, as already supposed, a greater momentum of growth, with frequently a smaller mass, protogyny is not so markedly developed, and the tendency towards maleness and cleavage is therefore inherently greater. If now new relations or rather want of former modes of nutrition of the cytoplasm supervenes after oviposition, the momentum of growth tending to segmentation, received from the parent even after the expulsion of the polar bodies, is still sufficient, so that the so-called female pronucleus is able to proceed under these new conditions to take possession of the cytoplasmic field and initiate normal development under new and independent conditions, through segmentation, leading to the formation of an embryo. If these views are correct, parthenogenesis is the vanishing point of maleness and femaleness, yet, in some cases, its energy is so great that it sometimes, even then, ends in maleness as seen in the development of drones amongst bees, thus illustrating still further the tendency in some cases to run down to the male condition.

If these conclusions will hold universally, there is good ground for believing that in the gradual evolution of protogyny the cytoplasmic field, in which rapidly successive segmentations were possible, was also evolved. If this is true, then sexuality itself arose as the consequence of protogyny starting in parthenogenesis. The primary and secondary sexual characters of multicellular forms were also probably the outgrowth of secondary and adaptive processes consequent upon the effects wrought as here supposed through protogyny and the evolution of a large cytoplasmic field. The origin of sex at any rate hinges upon the decision of how the disproportion between the chromatin and cytoplasm arose in the sexual products of the two sexes respectively. Upon its last analysis this problem must resolve itself into purely physiological factors.

These views are in accord with the first part of this paper, though it may at first seem that the theory that the egg expels polar bodies because of its specialized nature is not well founded. What there is in favor of such a view is, that it harmonizes with the morphological and physiological data of ovogenesis, and the conjugation of Infusoria. In any event, it is certain that if ova represent an incompleted effort to produce spermatozoa, it is very certain that they are specialized in so far as this effort has been realized as supposed, in the formation of polar bodies and a large volume of cytoplasm.

Consequently ova may be regarded as incompletely differentiated spermatogonia. The undoing of this specialization whereby the egg becomes the morphological equivalent of spermatozoön so far as its chromatin is concerned brings us back to essentially the same basis as was followed in the first part of this paper.

Experimental evidence shows that the process of fertilization is self-regulative and restricted to a single spermatozoön. Indeed, one might infer from the evidence of the phenomena of fertilization that such must be the case, and that the ingress of the spermatic element, in sexual forms, is a consequence of the exhaustion of the power of continuous growth, as shown in the abortive effort at spermatogenesis in the extrusion of the polar bodies. A consequence, however, following because of the appetency of the spermatozoön to set up a segmentation in the cytoplasm which should end in a continuation of the process of spermatogenesis set agoing by the expulsion of the polar bodies. Yet, this does not occur, and, as we have seen, a good reason can be assigned why spermatogenesis does not go on indefinitely after being initiated by the extrusion of the polar bodies. Equally good reasons can be assigned why the method of nuclear movement is changed after the entrance of the spermatozoön. On my view this is wholly due to the sudden advent of wholly new conditions, since about the time of the ingress of the spermatozoön the egg is not only cut off from its supply of nutriment and is now an isolated being the whole of the cytoplasmic field of which is at the mercy of the combined action of the pronuclei, while the preparatory equilibrium resulting from the extrusion of the polar bodies has been attained beforehand.

The new external conditions constitute a continuously acting series of stimuli provoking the action and reaction of the chromatin, achromatin, and cytoplasm upon each other, as has been rendered probable by the studies of Boveri and Watase. The isolation of the egg makes it independent; its cleavage products now cohere and the whole plan of its fragmentation depends upon its using every particle of its cytoplasm as reciprocally nutritive material for the maintenance of the integrity of the whole.

Maturation is truly the proper name for the process of the extrusion of polar bodies, and it may be that in some cases the polar bodies may be large enough to merit the name of protova, especially the first one, and that a large enough cytoplasmic field may exist around its nucleus to attract spermatozoa. Yet the polar bodies are nevertheless to be regarded as abortive attempts at the production of spermatozoa.

It may also be that the male condition characterized by the assumption by the elements of that sex of a monad-like flagellate form, is really an attempt at the recapitulation of the most ancient ancestral monadiform condition. In the female we have seen that the attainment of such a condition is abortive, but enough is left in the disguise of the polar bodies to represent a reminiscence of the lowest phase of organic evolution.

We have now recapitulated all the important and difficult queries that have arisen in regard to the meaning of the polar bodies, which we also now see probably have a phylogenetic significance.

The evolution of complicated apparatus and processes for the emission of the sexual products, when mature, is only an accessory and a secondary consequence of the continuous series of processes described above, and which has also proceeded *pari passu* with the divergence in the morphological and physiological characters of the products of the two sexes. The primary sexual characters and probably also the secondary ones have been evolved in response to the all-important requirement of most efficiently disposing of the sexual products. The habit of copulation itself must have so arisen, and the stimulus effecting the discharge of the sexual products finally acts through the sensorium and through the reciprocal contact of the nerve terminations in special dermal tracts concerned in copulation in the two sexes.

In this way it must be supposed that eventually the sexual passion became intensified as the provisions for effecting the union of the sexual cells became more elaborate, and as the parent-body became more and more differentiated and specialized to take a more and more important share in this process. The presence of the germ cells has undoubtedly reacted upon the soma or parent body so as to intensify the tendency towards a greater differentiation of the primary sexual organs, and this through the sensorium and its sensory terminals.

It is interesting to reflect that the tendency to a repression of the male traits in the ovum has been manifested in the adult organization of the two sexes in Metazoa. The assertion of some writers to the effect that

the female is merely a retarded stage of the development of the male may be correlated with the singular and suggestive contrasts between the egg and spermatozoön.

The evolution of sex and the evolution of sexual love or passion are inextricably intertwined. The history of the one is the history of the other. There are many reasons leading to the conclusion that the earliest and lower forms of sexuality were never in the past and are not now impelled to conjugate by anything akin to the gratification of passion such as is met with amongst the higher series of animal forms. Sexual passion is the outgrowth of a gradually developed and increased capacity for experiencing pleasurable sensations by the parent body or soma which is the producer or bearer of the sexual products. The high specialization of the sexual processes in higher forms has also unfortunately led to the possibility of their perversion. No sexual perversion is possible amongst lower forms where the essence of sexuality is the mere concrescence or conjugation of sexual cells. Courtship, violence towards and pursuit of the female, sexual love, etc., are the consequences of the evolution of a soma or parent body, which is the mere carrier of germ-cells, but which is capable of experiencing exquisite pleasure in the consummation of the sexual act.

The intromission of an erectile organ covered with highly sensitive nervous end-organs into the genital passages of the female is the appetency for the sexual elements to conjugate reflected upon the soma. Copulation and the development of erectile or other sensitive intromittent and reciprocally coadapted primary sexual organs must have been due to the effect of use, since disuse, as in castration, affects the development of the parts, while abnormal activity, under favorable conditions, is said to increase their development. This view is sustained by the evidence in both plants and animals; in both the devices for effecting conjugation of the sexual elements and developed in the most gradual manner, until, in plants, the pollen-grains, with the help of various secondary adaptations, such as their morphological development, insect agency, the wind, etc., are evolved into true intromittent organs answering to the function of a penis in the form of a growing pollen-tube, stimulated to growth by nutriment supplied by the stigma and carrying the very minute, elongate, male chromatin element in its very narrow passage to the ovicell of the ovary. In the same way the male intromittent organs of animals have been developed from a mere cloacal papilla, or a low-grooved fleshy erectile process to a highly differentiated and excessively complex penis with, in some cases, an elaborate series of rosettes and flanges covered with a thin integument with highly sensitive terminal sensory nerves, that are in reflex connection with the higher parts of the sensorium and through the lumbar region of the spinal cord with the testes, spermatic vesicles and accelerator urinæ and other muscles which they may throw into spasmodic contractions in order to compress the vesiculæ and cause the emission of the male elements in the act of coition. Similar actions result in the female which

affect the peristaltic contraction of the oviducts, the enclosure of the ovary by the fimbriæ leading to conditions favorable to the emission of the egg at the time of coitus.

In animals, the provisions for rendering the male elements more efficient are thus rendered more perfect. There is not wanting evidence that the glans penis may serve as a sort of piston, fitting closely against the sides of the vaginal passages so as to prevent the regurgitation and loss of the semen. In mice I have observed that in those which have recently been in coitus, the uterus is actually distended with semen. These contrivances, many of which are of the most singular conformation, as that of the pig,' for example, probably serve the purpose of more efficiently carrying the seminal matter into the genital passages of the female where they are to subserve the essential purposes of reproduction. At any rate, the wonderful contrivances in the higher plants serving the purpose of efficient fertilization are no more remarkable than those in the higher animals, the study of which has been singularly neglected by physiologists.

In the lowest types of living forms there is nothing which suggests in any way the gratification of passion. The mere tendency towards conjugation of animals and plants without nerves cannot be identified with an appetency arising from any pleasure experienced in such conjugation. There are at first no provisions made for conjugation except such as the accident of contiguity of the conjugating elements as the germinating spores of Myxomycetes, the intracellular spores of *Hydrodictyon*, etc. When the process is so primitive as this, there is no evidence to show that it is anything more than the expression of the cessation of one order of things at the termination of one set of external conditions giving place to a new order of things under the stimulus of a new set of outward conditions more favorable to growth. Under this view of the case the incipiency of conjugative phenomena is simply the expression of a readjustment of the processes of growth under the influence of more or less favorable conditions of life. The physiological traits of that life are expressed in the mode of molecular aggregation and constitution of the cellular unit or units composing the individual. Its tendencies are to increase the mass of the individual by processes of integration of new matter in the course of which such new matter becomes molecularly identical with that of the organism engaged in such integration, a process commonly expressed by the term assimilation.

The consequence of such newer integrations are that still other integrations are possible, under favorable conditions, on a much larger scale than the first ones. The increased power to make continuously more and more extensive and rapid integrations of identical molecules is possibly in some way due to the increase of mass and surface and the consequently increased capacity to liberate energy, or to perform work in a still more active integration and assimilation of molecules.

The Malthusian principle therefore rests, in its last analysis, upon a

chemico-physical basis. It is probably, therefore, not an unjustified assumption to state that the acquisition of an increased mass in organic bodies leads to an increased capacity to integrate and assimilate still further additions to the original organized mass, and that if this process could go on indefinitely without the intervention of death and a necessity for oxygen, the earth might be gradually transformed, in so far as its available materials held out for such a purpose, into a few organized individuals. Such a supposition is, however, absurd, since such masses, even were their growth possible, would finally become helplessly immobile from their own weight; such a process would be self-destructive and incapable of indefinite maintenance.

If, however, the principle that successive increments in the mass of organized bodies, carries with it the implication that such increments imply their capacity to increase more and more rapidly, under favorable conditions, or as it may otherwise be expressed, are thus enabled to grow, in virtue of such an inherent property, far beyond the bulk of their original germinal mass, then this deduction must form the basis upon which the phenomena of growth, reproduction and sex must finally be interpreted. This principle affords also the physico-chemical or physiological reason for the foundation of the Malthusian principle that the production of organisms would if unchecked outrun the available food production for a certain section of such organisms, as an aggregate—namely, the animal world.

The foundation of the principle of Malthus and of the Darwinian principle founded upon it, therefore lies within the domain of ultimate biological physics or the molecular dynamics of organized bodies. The mainspring of the principle of natural selection, upon final analysis is not itself a choice between two things but an inevitable consequence of the innate molecular habit of living matter, if I may so express myself. It is physical in that the chemical and physiological laws under which growth or molecular integration can take place are themselves resolvable into physical laws which can be coördinated under the principle of the conservation of energy.

This physical principle of continuous and continuously augmented integration and the consequent increase of the mass of living bodies is the primary conditioning factor of growth by intussusception of similar molecules. It initiates the struggle for existence, as the struggle due to motion and the attraction of stellar bodies, maintains the latter in their harmonious relations in space.

This principle must, however, be further qualified in that the properties of the molecular integrating factors of living organisms differ very widely. Some forms (vegetal) under one set of conditions can integrate new and more complex assimilable molecules by recombining binary compounds; other forms—animals—can assimilate only such new ternary molecules or such as are very nearly similar to their own, while a third form, the sexual, is probably the highest expression of this integration of similar mole-

cules in that here the molecular differences are zero or nearly so, and at most goes no further than molecular differences, having their origin in the individual traits of either of the two parents. The last or sexual form of integration or intussusception also occurs, *en masse*, and without any reciprocal sacrifice of molecular identity. This last form of organic molecular integration is therefore effected with the least expenditure of energy on the part of the sexual elements themselves which are involved. Sexuality according to this view as expressed primarily in conjugation is a sort of refined hunger, in which neither the "eating" nor the "eaten" expends but a minimum of energy in a process of reciprocal assimilation. It is a hunger in which the sense of "taste" in the vulgar, anthropomorphic sense is unknown ; it is an affinity developed possibly through the attraction of identical molecular aggregates for each other.

The principle of cumulative molecular integration is similar in some respects to the cumulative principle operative in organic structural evolution, through which a superposition of adaptations results, not necessarily as the consequence of selection but as the result of the morphological and physiological necessity of conforming in the next step of morphological and physiological complication to that which had preceded it. Many instances in illustration might be cited, such as the annular placenta of the ovum necessarily conforming to the easiest possibility of internal contact with a tubular uterine canal. This principle has been responsible for much that has happened in organic evolution, but it is again dependent in curious, circuitous ways upon the still more primary principle of cumulative integration, overgrowth of organisms, or their capacity to grow beyond their own bulk at certain points, as implied by Haeckel.

The highest form of cumulative integration ending in an overgrown and abortive spermatogonium, which is the equivalent of the egg, together with its further expression in the production of spermatozoa which have had their cytoplasmic field reduced, leads to a condition where the one becomes helpless without the other. It also presumably leads to the evolution of an appetency or affinity of the male for the female element in that the one possesses what the other does not, and in that they are produced in similar organisms or those of the same species their idioplasmic constitution must be very nearly the same, except for the morphological differences which characterize them. These differences are again the preponderance of nucleoplasm in the one or the element immediately concerned in growth and the physiological integrity of the living cell, and the preponderance of cytoplasm in the other, which is the medium in which free nuclear motion, karyokinesis, and consequent growth is possible. The affinity so developed through cumulative integration by the divergent processes of ovogenesis and spermatogenesis ends in what I shall term *reciprocal integration* without loss of molecular identity, or in what is usually termed "fertilization."

The advantages offered by such a process is that it provides for the development of metazoan or multicellular embryo, which is without the

need of immediately feeding, but which is enabled to reach a certain self-helpful morphological complication before it begins the struggle for existence for itself. It provides a large cytoplasmic field in which rapidly recurrent successive and simultaneous karyokineses can take place under the guidance of the inherited tendencies resident in the nucleoplasm and cytoplasm of the combined germs. The one sex appears to supply the field for segmentational activity, the other the segmentational impulse itself. In other words, sexuality is the expression of the action of the principle of the physiological division of labor, extended so as to involve two kinds of individuals of the same species, or two different functionless parts of the same individual, as in hermaphrodites.

There is no convincing evidence that the male induces variability. The argument from hybrids is of little value. The tendency to an equilibrium as the consequence of close interbreeding or of continued promiscuous interbreeding is the same, and is to be interpreted as the result of the constancy of the mode of growth of the average individual which must finally result, following from the average of hereditary characters which are finally thus transmissible. As soon as slightly differing forms are crossed the karyokinetic equilibrium is disturbed and variability ought on *a priori* grounds to ensue. To saddle the induction of variability upon the male does not seem to be demonstrated, as the factors involved are too numerous to enable us to decide what ones are important and what are unimportant.

A view which has far more in its favor is that a large oösperm, interpreted as above, with a large cytoplasmic field, is inherently more liable to vary its karyokinetic processes through very slight variations in the external influences than a small or a parthenogenetic one. That sexuality, taken in the widest sense, is responsible for variability is probably nearer the truth. That the oösperm, with its large cytoplasmic field, is the real arena in which variability disports itself, may be taken for granted. It is also very evident that the evidence derived from the development of monsters is clearly in favor of such a view. Monsters are developed only when the early stages of development are karyokinetically disturbed, as is well known. Moreover, there is no hard and fast line between monstrosities and variations of a less and less monstrous character until those of an almost imperceptible and unimportant character are encountered. That the tendency towards variability is more marked in the young than in the adult stages of fixed and slightly variable types of Metazoa may be regarded as a truism, and must be considered the foundation of these views.

In that temperature affects the rate of karyokinetic processes, it is clear that inequalities of temperature simultaneously affecting different points on the surface of an egg would affect the rate of segmentation of the cells of such different points and thus induce variability. A single karyokinesis disturbed or impeded on one side of an embryo must disturb all subsequent ones. A mechanism so delicate as this of karyokinesis may

also be interfered with in other ways. It seems almost self-evident that where karyokineses become simultaneous and rapidly successive there must be a greater inherent probability that variations should be induced through disturbances of the karyokinetic processes.

Latterly much discussion has taken place regarding rejuvenescence and the relation of the process of fertilization to a supposed renewal of the youth of the sexual cells. It may be suggested that the sexual cells probably never grow old from the causes which act upon the other cells of the body to render them senile, and it may be that the real ground for a theory of rejuvenescence lies not in fertilization itself but in the fact that the sexual cells are functionless and have not been belabored with physiological duties in the parent body. Where they are produced annually, as in many animals and in all plants, they are also the youngest cells of the parent body, while the spermatozoa, produced in some animals at hourly intervals, are still younger, or more youthful. The male cell is therefore the most youthful, the least functional and the one most disposed to exhibit its activities of growth under favorable conditions with the greatest energy, though not necessarily in the sense that such a display of greater energy would be favorable towards provoking variability, except as provided for by the cytoplasmic field of the ovum or female element.

It has also been pointed out that the first cleavage of the oösperm corresponds to the future median plane of the embryo or to the line dividing the future hypoblast from the epiblast. But there are still other relations which connect these phenomena with the fore and aft disposition of the body of the parent. It is a matter of common knowledge that the Infusoria when undergoing division divide either lengthwise or crosswise. In fixed forms—*Vorticella*—the division occurs lengthwise of the parent and in conformity to the mode in which the future individual is related to the colony by its base. In many free forms the division is crosswise, and it is a singular fact that the end of the hinder individual next to the posterior end of the anterior one becomes the future anterior end of the hindmost one. These two forms of division have been developed adaptively and in conformity with very different conditions in the two cases. Why should the end of the young Paramœcium next the foremost or parent individual become its anterior extremity preferably to the other one? Does this not indicate that use and habit may have had an influence in giving the plasma of both a bias which extended to the soma of the posterior bud and which expresses itself in this peculiar polar conformity to that of the anterior parent individual, which is more somatic in its character?

Numerous other forms, such as *Volvox*, illustrate the same tendency of the axis of the young to conform to the axis of the parent. In Fishes the embryos of *Batrachus tau*, which are attached to a fixed substratum after the rupture of the egg-membrane, by the adhesion of the yolk sack to the latter, show that, at the time of deposit, *the future axis of the whole brood of embryos was predetermined in the body of the parent.* That this must be so may be concluded from the astonishing fact that the heads and tails

of a whole brood conform in direction, within a degree or two, to a common axial plane. How was such an astonishing conformity to a common axis brought about, if it was not developed in the ovary of the parent before oviposition? If this is true then the axis of the parent and the polarity of her body, as expressed in its fore and aft extension, exerted such an influence upon the brood as to impress such a polar tendency, and transmit it directly to every egg matured in her body. If this is true, then the parent body does transmit characters directly to its offspring, Weismann, Lankester and other deluded skeptics to the contrary notwithstanding. Here is a whole brood of young fishes, fixed to the surface upon which they were hatched, every one of which conforms, to within a degree or two, to lines running parallel to each other in a common direction. Does or does not either parent transmit this; since one or the other must do so, how is it done, and why is this not proof that the soma of the parent transmits certain polarities, and those of the most important character, directly to the germ-plasma from which the embryos are developed? The case here is just as clear as in the case of Vorticella or Paramœcium; they are in exact conformity, so that we have here once more direct evidence of the untenability and absolute falsity of some of Weismann's deductions as to the non-transmissibility of acquired characters.

In a similar way, how is the polar conformity of the chick in the egg to the axis of the parent bird to be accounted for? Though in this case the axis of the embryo lies constantly at right angles to that of the parent as the ovum descends through the oviduct. Equally striking are the constant relations of the embryo Rabbit, in the uterus up to the tenth or twelfth day, at right angles to the axis of the parent body. The same is true of the Cat, Dog, Mouse, Rat, and other forms. The same principle also holds in Arthropods, where egg-tubes are formed and where there are also constant anterior and posterior poles of the eggs developed, which bear a constant relation to those of the parent. Here are bodily habits directly transmitted which involve nothing like a change of structure; does the germ-plasma accomplish this, or does the direct influence of the mother's organism accomplish this remarkable result? For me the latter alternative seems to be the only explanation.

Similarly the phenomena of budding in Salpa, as worked out by Brooks and Seeliger, tend to establish the same conclusion, namely, that the polarities of the immediate parent influence those of the offspring directly. It looks as if the bodily functions of the parent either impressed themselves as if from a distance, or through the pole of the germ most directly in a nutritive relation to the parent upon the still unconscious germinal matter giving it these tendencies to conform in these curious ways to the polarities of the parent organism. It is also tolerably clear that the so-called "promorphology" of the egg is preceded by a still earlier morphological history, which has been scarcely more than touched by students of the Metazoa. The direct influence of the source of the nutriment supplied to the growing embryos is probably indicated in these singular

examples, no less than in the fact that the polarity of young, viviparously developed aphides corresponds to the fore and aft polarities of the parents. Or, as in the case of the ovarian leaflets of the ovary of the lamprey, the micropyles are found to be invariably turned towards the vascular core of the leaflets, and consequently towards the sources of nutriment and oxygen. In this last case also, these factors have determined the position of the future germinal or animal pole, and consequently the point on the egg where development shall begin.

The points which have thus far been elaborated tend, in a general way, to support the conclusion that, in the production of ova and spermatozoa, both have arisen from a common basis. The lowest forms, we certainly know, tend to multiply without attendant karyokinetic processes, probably, as suggested, because a cytoplasmic field or arena in which nuclear movement is possible, is wanting. In the lowest Monads sporulation results in the breaking up of the parent body into infinitesimally minute germs, which are, presumably, composed in the main of chromatin or nucleoplasm, a conclusion which comports with the fact now ascertained, that the chromatin or nucleoplasm of lower forms, if deprived of its envelope of cytoplasm, may regenerate it. Overgrowth of mass, so as to form a large cell-body composed of cytoplasm, is unknown amongst the very lowest forms, which are also flagellate. In the next step (*Nostoc*), the overgrowth of certain cells means that they are incapable of development. In the next step, the conjugation of overgrown cells, with those in which nucleoplasm preponderates, restores the power of growth or the power to integrate cytoplasm anew, or, as in Infusoria, conjugation stimulates the production of nucleoplasm through the constructive metabolism of the investing cytoplasm.

All of this evidence tends to prove that maleness, or the condition of the flagellate spore, is the primitive one as already stated. Since the very lowest animal forms are likely to preserve some reminiscence ot the primitive processes leading up to animal sexuality in its most generalized form, it will be desirable to appeal to the evidence offered by such forms. The Amœba is undoubtedly animal in nature, but notwithstanding the persistence and frequency with which it has been studied, much still remains to be learned of its life history.

Leidy has shown that, in certain forms of Amœba, the nuclei tend to multiply after reaching a certain size, and through a tripartite division without karyokinesis. One of these nuclei is then transported to near the surface, where it bursts and allows the balls of chromatin adherent to its walls to escape into the surrounding water, presumably as germs, but he did not trace their history. If this should prove to be a true case of sporulation, it would prove that in the Amœba there are conditions which favor the production of chromatin, and that the germinal matter or nucleoplasm is "set aside" in the nucleus from which it is expelled.

Mrs. Lillie Holman's observations (*l. c. supra*) also tend to show that a conjugation may occur where one Amœba swallows another and then

disgorges it. The disgorged one then comes to rest and becomes encysted; it then discharges upwards of two hundred spores, since the further results of the development of the latter were observed the next day in the same "life-slide" as very minute young Amœbæ.

Brass* has given a more circumstantial account. According to him the body of the Amœba after encystment undergoes at least superficial subdivision into cells. The cyst then bursts or opens at one point and these superficial cells escape from the cyst as minute flagellate monads, which soon lose their flagella, becoming at the same time again amœboid and settle upon objects over which they creep about as did their parent, of which they are a fragment. They now also feed very actively, grow rapidly and soon become the counterparts of the parental organism, which gave rise to them by fragmentation. A somewhat similar history has been worked out by Haeckel for *Protomyxa*, and Weldon has reported the detachment or escape of small germs from the body of *Pelomyxa*.

We have the spermatogonium typified in this peculiar method of fragmentation of the Amœba, especially as described by Brass. It is an overgrown cell breaking down in part, but first elaborating more chromatin, just as a spermatogonium does. The overgrowth in mass of the parent cell is due to cumulative integration. The flagellate offspring represents the spermatozoa produced by a spermatogonium in a multicellular form, but with this difference that a spermatozoön cannot withdraw its flagellum and begin to feed. Such a flagellate germ of a higher multicellular form must then perish if it is not nourished in some other way. The only way in which it can be nourished is to blend with the cytoplasmic body of another abortive but hypertrophied spermatozoön—the ovum, as supposed above. In other cases, mammals and birds, it is known that the spermatozoa or flagellate germs of the male die if not kept at the same temperature as the parent body. They are not adapted to continue to live in the cold medium in which the flagellate germs of an Amœba would at once begin to feed and grow.

The flagellate or wandering germs of the Amœba are wandering in habit, probably because they inherit an organization favorable to vagrancy from still lower monad-like creatures. And this wandering habit is doubtless advantageous to the young Amœba, as they are thereby scattered so as to be placed where food is more plentiful, at any rate, the offspring of one parent Amœba do not, as a consequence, fall into a heap at one place so as to come into such close competition with one another for food.

Such vagrant habits would be of advantage to the germs of almost any species and they are certainly of use in many cases in that they favor the distribution of a species. In the case of the male germs of higher, in fact, of all forms, this vagrant habit becomes useful in effecting their distribution, and at last of aiding them to find the egg and the micropyle, if such is developed, through which they enter the ovum. So that here again we find that a habit which has at first thought apparently no preëminent

* "Die Zelle, das Element der Organischen Welt," pp. 63–65, Thiéme, Leipzig, 1889.

value or importance in the very highest forms, but which has such an importance in lower ones, may serve a very different purpose in higher types, that is, to find the female element so as to combine with it, which, of course, would be an advantage to the species. In this example, we find an illustration of change of function, or rather the use of an old function in a new way, illustrating also the principle that, any further advantageous step in evolution avails itself of the service of the next preceding one in the order of time, or rather, the latter is apt to thus become a stepping-stone to farther progress, as is shown in this instance.

The parallelism of the Amœba before breaking up into flagellate germs, with a spermatogonium in a higher form is, however, complete, and it is from this basis that further criticisms and suggestions may now proceed.

Geddes and Thomson, in their suggestive work on sex,* have attempted to identify the ovolution of the female germ or ovum with a tendency to develop a leaning towards constructive metabolism or anabolism, while the male germ exhibits the reverse tendency or towards destructive metabolism or katabolism. So far as the directly palpable facts are concerned which lie upon the surface, these conclusions of Geddes and Thomson would seem to be justified. There is apparently nothing in them which conflicts, at first thought, with the facts of morphology and physiology. Yet, I believe that the prime conclusion of these authors is capable of further analysis, and consequently that it is not as important as it appears to them, nor is it strictly and entirely true in a physiological sense.

The growth of an egg we will admit requires constructive metabolism to extend over a longer period than if the germ were male. While it is true that growth represents the expenditure of a certain amount of energy in the form of metabolism, it is by no means clear that the energy of growth required to produce a number of male elements equal in volume to an egg is any greater in the one case than in the other. It may be said that there must necessarily be more cell divisions or karyokineses in the case of a given volume of male elements than in the female, but this goes for nothing in that it cannot be shown that the metabolism or energy expended in building up and segmenting the one is any greater reckoning the additional and usual formation of an egg membrane in the egg (which is wanting in the other element), than in building up the large mass of plasma in the ovum. But in some eggs there is no egg membrane. Even then the process of spermatogenesis is not strictly to be compared with a disruptive metabolism or katabolism; on the contrary, as an end product of cytoplasmic activity, the male cell is in the main the highest achievement of constructive metabolism as represented in its preponderant nucleoplasm. The lowest forms of life have apparently a greater capacity for the development of nucleoplasm or chromatin-like substance, than the cells of higher animals, but even there, as in higher forms, there is the best evidence that the cytoplasm is the real agent in the production of the nucleoplasm; the latter grows, as we know, at the expense of the former.

* "The Evolution of Sex," New York, 1890.

The processes of metabolism, it is true, are carried a stage further in the production of flagellate germs and male elements than in the female, but it is not towards a lower plane of molecular structure, but towards a higher one than in the female germ. It may be said that metabolism is controlled by the nucleoplasm or chromatin, in that the volume of the one increases with the volume of the other as in a growing Amœba. An insufficiency of nucleoplasm would render a cell inert and incapable of coördinating its large cytoplasmic field, as experiment seems to demonstrate. The continuous processes of growth therefore ending in the expulsion of the polar bodies bring about such a stage of cytoplasmic inertia, in which the process of fertilization and the concomitant access of a highly complex and anabolic male element would restore the balance between the cytoplasm and the nucleoplasm. The "katabolic tendency" of the male element is more apparent than real; it has a greater capacity for katabolic change than the female as measured by the relative volume of its nucleoplasm, but absolutely it has far less because of its small size as compared with the whole ovum. The question of the genesis of sex is not to be disposed of in quite so simple a way as is done by Geddes and Thomson, or in a sentence. These authors have missed the essence of the matter in that they have not noted the essential distinction which exists between the egg and the spermatazoön, nor the transcendant importance of the process of cumulative integration. The cytoplasm preponderates in the one, while the nucleoplasm preponderates in the other. No reason for this has been assigned by these authors. Is not the evolution of a larger amount of nucleoplasm than is contained in the egg, as must happen were it to break up into spermatozoa expressive rather of preponderant anabolism than of preponderant katabolism? Is also the greater mobility of the male element an expression of a specially katabolic tendency? Is not its mobility due to an inherited tendency in part, derived from its most remote flagellate ancestor, and partly to its small size, form, mode of genesis and molecular structure?

The contrast between the modes of production of the male and female elements in *Ostrea edulis* is typical. The difference appears to lie *solely* in the fact that, in the case of the egg, the *whole* of the overgrown spermatogonium is expelled, but is not a mature ovum until after the expulsion of the polar bodies; in the expulsion of the male elements only a *part* of the spermatogonium is expelled, this process being accompanied beforehand by the elaboration of an excessive amount of chromatin by the mother nucleus of the spermatogonium, this chromatin serving to form, in the main, the nuclei of the multitudes of spermatozoa so set free. In that the chromatin used in the development of spermatozoa is formed at the expense of the cell body of the spermatogonium, there is an almost exact equivalence in the plasma that remains as the cell body of the ovum, so far as the metabolism expended in its production is concerned. The essential difference seems to me to lie not so much in any supposed diatheses which are more or less anabolic as in a difference in the func-

tional properties of the plasma of egg and sperm, developed as a consequence of the physiological division of labor in the cell between cytoplasm and chromatin. The former is the immediate agent of intussusception, the latter controls and coördinates the processes of the former. The one is produced in a confined place tending to repress segmentational activity or nearer abundant supplies of nutriment. The other is produced in open cavities which admit of the free escape of sex products, or in regions, or at times when the determination of pabulum is less abundant than in the case of ova. Looking over the arrangement of the reproductive organs and their relation and proximity to the nutritive system, in many forms these views will be found to have much evidence in their favor. Nevertheless there is no evidence in favor of the one process being more katabolic than the other. They are equivalent, only that in the ovum there is a repressed segmentational tendency, in the spermatogonium an unrepressed one. The tendencies are towards the male or primitive monadiform condition in both, only that secondary physiological influences are repressive in the female and irrepressive in the case of the male element. Segmentation into spermatozoa is hindered in the egg, favored in the case of the spermatogonium. Yet despite this there is not the slightest evidence that the results in the two cases are not equivalent so far as the expenditure of energy is concerned.

The real difference in the result lies in this, that in the female element there is an enormous cytoplasmic field in which simultaneous and successive nuclear movement can take place leading to the realization of a coherent process of development instead of an incoherent one such as occurs in the breaking down of the spermatogonium into spermatozoa. The process in the one case is cohesive, in the other disruptive and self-destructive. The tendency then in the female is towards morphological integration, in the male towards morphological disintegration, but upon the common basis of the spermatogonium.

The real gain of this is not in the absolute bulk of the embryo simply, but in that such an embryo may become self-mobile and self-helpful in spite of its size. Herein lies the true significance of sex and of the cumulative process initiated through the repression of the primitive segmentational tendency of the spermatogonium. An embryo thus developed can go through an entire and elaborate cycle of embryonic development without requiring to take food at all and attain to a self-helpful, self-mobile condition.

It is therefore obvious that in such a process of repression of segmentation of the spermatogonium there has been a distinct advantage gained in the struggle for existence, in that such a spermatogonium could directly become the means by which a rapid or saltatory process of evolution could be accomplished, resulting in the evolution of larval forms. From such a stepping-stone the hypertrophied spermatogonium—ovum—other advances were possible, especially in the direction of variation, since such rapid simultaneous and successive segmentations would provide the most

extensive possibilities for variation. This must be true upon the simple ground of the theory of permutations, since every cell added to the aggregate of a segmenting germ must increase its capacity to vary. This gives not simply a capacity to vary as if variation were fortuitous, but as a consequence a capacity of adaptation which is proportionately and demonstrably greater during their earlier stages, a circumstance again in conformity with the fact that all living metazoan types have diverged directly from the ovum, as is proved by their ontogeny.

The reproductive cells, as stated in a previous paper by the writer,* are functionless, so far as being of any service to the parent body producing them is concerned. The only function they have in relation to the parent body, is to lead a pseudo-parasitic existence at the expense of the surplus nutriment elaborated by the parent organism; but these pseudo-parasitic generative cells are themselves the products of the continuation of the processes of cellular growth and fission of the parent plasma.

Being functionless, the reproductive cells of both sexes also tend to revert to the most primitive form of reproduction, namely, to break down into spores, as illustrated by the bodily fragmentation of the majority of lower forms into spores, or the multiplication of the nuclei of some of these forms at the expense of their cytoplasm.

In the male this reversion and breaking down into spores is most complete in the evolution of a spermatogonium, in the female it is incomplete in that the reproductive cells are in some way prevented from breaking down either by excess of nutriment or proximity to nutriment under enclosed or encysted conditions, which tends to be overcome at about the time the eggs are set free or after that time, as expressed in the expulsion of the polar bodies. The female individual may therefore be regarded in the light of a male organism in which the excessive tendency to sporulation has been repressed or retarded. The female state of all higher forms may be regarded as a suppressed or retarded male condition.

This repression of the male condition within the parent body leads however to a process of cumulative growth in the ovary or female gonad which expresses itself as the continued increase of the volume of the spermatogonium, leading to the evolution of a large amount of cytoplasm. After detachment of the hypertrophied spermatogonium, as an ovum, the source of supply in the form of nutriment is cut off, and whatever karyokinesis now goes on must proceed at the cost of a small amount of nucleoplasm, which soon exhausts itself so far as any exhibition of the energy of growth is concerned in the production of the polar bodies. After the expulsion of the polar bodies the egg is probably able merely to so adjust its internal forces so as to prevent the ovum from disintegrating.

In this condition the egg is incapable of further growth and in that the spermatic body from a fully developed spermatogonium, developed in the male is alone capable of reinforcing the exhausted female nucleus, so as to let loose the potential energy, for the time being, stably locked up in

*"Origin and Meaning of Sex," *Amer. Nat.*, 1889, pp. 501–508.

the cytoplasm or cytoplasm and yolk of the hypertrophied female spermatogonium or ovum, it must have access to the latter.

The egg before the expulsion of the polar bodies is a spermatogonium, after that and exclusive of the polar bodies it is the exact homologue of the spermatozoön in that its nucleoplasm is now reduced to the volume of the nucleoplasm of the male element of the same species.

The male spore is however so specialized as an organism in nearly all forms that it is incapable of nourishing itself. Clearly, the only way it can do so is to find lodgment in a body whose molecular constitution is as nearly as possible similar to itself, otherwise its identity must perish in that it would either be digested or in some way absorbed, neither of which fates befall it in the egg, as we know from observation. That body in which it can find lodgment is the female spore or germ of its own species, in which it is not only not digested but is taken in as a partner literally, since it completely fuses with the female centre of control hitherto coördinating and maintaining the integrity of the cytoplasm.

But as soon as this fusion of the starved spore—male element—and the overgrown female element happens, the further changes which now take place must proceed in the presence of the stimulus of abundant nutriment (represented by the cytoplasm of the egg) for the male; but this is not all, the egg is now detached and cannot be nourished for a time, and its career of development is now also profoundly influenced by such all important new conditions as the surrounding oxygen affords for renewed metabolism, under the new free condition, all of which taken together makes for a tendency towards a new mode segmentation which tends to recapitulate the growth of the parent form.

The process of fertilization is probably more like one in which there is a reciprocal blending of two living bodies in which there is no loss of identity of either in that their essential molecular constitution is exceedingly similar. Reciprocal digestion does not occur since the organization of both germs would be sacrificed if such a process were to occur. So far from that the organization of both germs is in a sense maintained, and we have in the blending of male and female elements the paradox of two cells becoming one without the sacrifice of organization in either during the process of fusion. It is therefore manifest that the application of the term mutual or reciprocal digestion as attempted by Rolph and maintained by Geddes is wide of the mark and not descriptive of the process at all. "Fertilization" is really the highest and most specialized form of molecular integration, and is itself the highest phase, and a consequence of the universal principle of cumulative integration, which underlies all continuous growth which in turn must end, on account of the requirements demanded by the surroundings, in discontinuous growth, the production of unlike germs by the same species, and consequently in sexuality.*

* The theory of the polar bodies developed in this paper remains to be put to the test. I find that the nuclei of the spermatozoa of *Ostrea edulis* take up the methyl green while the nuclei of the spermatogonia take up the saffranin from a solution of those two dyes

The causes of the "setting aside" of the "germ-plasma have acted directly and in an adaptive manner." "Nature is no spendthrift but takes the shortest way to her ends." Weismann assumes that the reproductive cells are "set aside" as the consequence of the action of the principle of the physiological division of labor. The cause of the physiological division of labor he attributes to the "action" of "natural selection." Is this true?

Taking one of the lowest forms of reproductive activity as illustrated in *Volvox* we find that the germ-cells are not yet constantly or definitely localized except that we may say that they arise in the posterior hemisphere of the colony. Examining *Volvox* from the standpoint which recent knowledge has afforded, it is clear that the anterior pole is differentiated to a degree not attained by the posterior pole. This differentiation clearly stands in a definite relation to the greater action of the light on the anterior pole from the germinal condition onwards through life. It also stands in a definite relation to the differentiation of the anterior pole as the directive and phototaxic one in the course of the execution of the motions of the whole organism rotating on a definite axis.

Furthermore, the organism when at rest, as it frequently is at the surface of the water, has the upper pole turned towards the light, and under these circumstances is it not to be supposed that the lower pole, which is the heavier on account of the presence of the large germs, would gravitate into its inferior position? I do not see how such an admission is to be avoided. If this is so the tendency once begun would tend to be intensified, since those peripheral cells which began to be receptive to the surplus nutriment elaborated by the whole organism would tend to maintain that tendency and the heavier they grew the more constantly they would tend to turn the anterior pole, where the largest "eye spots" are found upward towards the light. This would give the light an opportunity to maintain the specialization of the anterior pole as the photophilous one, and thus intensify its phototaxic tendencies.

The anterior pole would then be most active in its reactions to light, the posterior one least so as is actually the case. The evolution of the physiological differentiation of *Volvox* can therefore be directly traced to the action of the principle of overgrowth or overnutrition reacting under the influence of gravity upon the equilibrium of the colony so to adjust it that the colony will be uniformly acted upon generation after generation in the same way upon the upper pole. This would be an all-sufficient cause of the physiological differentiation or the real cause of the physiological

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mixed together. Balbiani has obtained somewhat similar results with the testes of Elasmobranchs and Mammals, using picrocarmine and methyl green. If the polar cells are abortive male elements they should have a greater affinity for methyl green than the female pronucleus. If such results were secured my hypothesis would obtain micro-chemical verification. Indeed, I am inclined to think that the fact which I have observed, that the one pole of the dumb-bell-shaped chromatin mass in the nucleus of the immature egg of *Ostrea* stains with methyl green, while the other pole stains with saffranin is distinctly in favor of my interpretation.

division of labor observed. This process of morphological specialization in *Volvox* is therefore not necessarily due to natural selection alone.

There are still other reasons why the physiological specializations in *Volvox* have proceeded along the lines they have. It may be asked why the germ-cells tend to bulge inwards as they enlarge into the jelly which fills the cavity of the colonial sphere. Why do they not bulge outwards?

To this it may be replied that light, oxygen and food react from the exterior of the colony. The mobile protoplasm through which supplies of nutriment come, must be most exterior. The katabolic running down of the accumulated nutriment matters into less mobile coarse granules which need and consume less oxygen, requires that these materials shall be pushed inwards where they will not obstruct respiration.

In this way, upon the ground of physiological anatomy and the reaction of the incident surrounding forces, the process of the "setting aside of the germ-plasma" in *Volvox* can be fully accounted for without appealing for an instant to natural selection. There is clearly nothing further needed.

It might be said that "natural selection" would favor only those individuals which did not have the germ-cells bulging outwards, because they could not so conveniently rotate or move forwards. Yes, but *Volvox* does not, in the first place, continuously rotate. In the next place, even if "natural selection" did work the wonders claimed for it, it is clear that the explanation here suggested is one which involves no waste of the forces of growth or of individuals, but is operative in virtue of the continuity of the processes of growth, besides it meets the requirements equally well with the hypothesis of natural selection.

The natural selectionist will next appeal to the morphology of *Volvox* in some other direction and ask, How was the hollow sphere evolved? This, in its turn, is clearly and purely adaptive. The growth of the original colonies, which were doubtless evolved from such as broke down into planogametes, grew directly into larger multicellular aggregates which would directly arrange their cells so as to derive the greatest advantage from the surroundings and in attaining that adjustment, the globular form was assumed, in that it offered the maximum opportunity for oxygen, food, etc., in the form of a hollow sphere with the gametes joined by protoplasmic bonds. The selection of the pattern of the form of the whole organism is thus traced to internal forces acting in direct response to outer conditions and not as the result of a murderous process of "selection" and "survival of the fittest." *

But this is not all, if the argument applied to the driving inward of the

*The method of segmentation itself must be regarded as a necessary adjustment of the cleavage planes in such wise, as to divide the large globular ovi-cells into approximately equal parts continuously. An adjustment of this sort effects the equal reduction of all the cells resulting from segmentation, and keeps them below a dimension or mass which outruns the surface to an extreme degree, since according to the Leuckart-Spencer principle beyond a dimension of six, mass begins to rapidly exceed surface and bring about conditions unfavorable for respiration and metabolism.

accumulated products of assimilation in order to avoid the peripheral obstruction of respiration the same argument can be applied to the localization of the germinal matter at the posterior pole. Suppose an ancestral Volvocine form still in a condition when it had not yet began to permanently cohere into a spherical colony. Suppose further, that when its maximum dimensions of growth had been nearly attained all its cells were so nearly alike that the differences would be extremely slight between them. But suppose them to be even very slightly different enough in size to respond to an equilibration of the colony by gravity at the surface of a still pool on a quiet sunny day. The upper cells would undoubtedly be stimulated into a slightly greater assimilative activity than the lower ones away from the light and shaded by the upper ones. The assimilated materials would not only be repelled towards the lower pole by this activity of the protoplasm of the upper pole, but would actually gravitate towards that pole. We thus see that, analyze the physiological data in whatever manner we please, there finally remains no warrant for the hypothesis that the germ-plasma is set aside in special cells for the express object of maintaining the continuity of the processes of reproduction. This apparent setting aside of germinal matter is itself the consequence of the necessary mode of the correlated action of physical agencies, ending in cumulative integration through continuous growth, and is clearly not the result of any elaborate selective process.

The running down katabolically of some of the assimilated or stored germinal matter is proof of its loss of function and uselessness to the parent organism except in so far as such cells are a repository for such materials. There is therefore no conclusion open to us but that one which assumes that the motive force of all these elaborate correlations in such a simple multicellular organism * are the results of the indirect action under cosmical conditions, of the principle that living matter tends to increase in bulk beyond the actual physiological requirements of its secular existence.

Summary of Conclusions.

1. Cumulative integration or assimilation beyond the current needs of the parent organism seems to have arisen as a consequence of the physical properties of "living" matter, as manifested in metabolism or the characteristic continuous disintegration and integration of such matter. It is a property of "living" matter which is a consequence of its molecular constitution; if so, "living" and the continuity of molecular change through metabolism is a physical process, differing only from ordinary chemical processes in its complexity, continuity and capability of self-maintenance under certain conditions; its most important consequence is continuous growth.

* The researches of Overton and myself have proved beyond doubt that Volvox is not a protozoön or protophyte as erroneously supposed by Lankester and Bütschli.

2. The law pointed out by Leuckart and Spencer that beyond the sixth dimension above unity mass outruns surface, may be regarded as in some way operative in hindering the growth of cells, through cumulative integration, beyond certain dimensions, in order that they may carry on respiration, nutrition, in a word, metabolism, most efficiently, under ordinary cosmical conditions. The average of cellular dimensions varies in different forms. So does the molecular constitution of living matter, giving rise to idioplasms.

3. The continuity of growth is maintained through cumulative integration, the continuous reduction in mass of "living" matter is effected through segmentation in some self-regulated way, presumably according to the Leuckart-Spencer principle.

4. The growth of the lowest forms of living beings is effected in the main or ends principally in the production of a single kind of living matter. In higher forms, in which the cells are also generally much larger, two kinds of living matter are developed in very unequal proportions. In the first case when division occurs, due to growth, there is little or no reaction between the two kinds of living cellular substance and division is direct or without karyokinesis. In the second case there is a reaction between the two kinds of living matter which is expressed most strongly as karyokinesis, or nuclear motion on the one hand and the development of fibres on the other radiating from or converging upon the nucleus.

5. The effect of cumulative growth of the cell-mass has been to finally produce a preponderating quantity of plasma which invests the primitive nuclear plasma or chromatin with a thick envelope; this envelope is known as the cell-body or cytoplasm, and also provides a *field* or space in which the action and reaction of the two kinds of living matter found in the cells of higher forms may display itself as karyokinesis. The plasmic space in which this occurs may be called a *cytoplasmic field*.

6. The action and reaction between the two kinds of plasma controls the order and direction in which the phenomena of growth take place, but in conformity to certain dimensions and earlier relations of the cytoplasmic field to its sources of nourishment.

7. The effect of the forces at work in cumulative integration is to augment mass, the effect of the action of segmentation so as to effect a readjustment according to the Leuckart-Spencer principle, is to bring about discontinuity of growth or reproduction through fission.

8. The asexual method of reproduction seems to have been purely a consequence of the operation of forces under the laws of cumulative integration and the law of Leuckart and Spencer, under varying conditions, and to have led to a continuously repeated division of living matter, as fast as it was formed into small masses, through direct processes of fission, composed at first almost wholly of nucleoplasm or chromatin.

9. As cytoplasm began to be developed more abundantly there seems to have been developed a tendency for the products of segmentation to cohere. We may therefore distinguish very sharply these two kinds of segmentation as *disruptive* and *coherent*. But the greater development of cytoplasm was itself a consequence of cumulative integration, which proceeded so fast that its products could not be converted into nucleoplasm or chromatin with sufficient rapidity so as to be in a condition to fall apart as small cells as a consequence of the action of the direct process of fission. The evidence for this is the fact that the nucleoplasm or chromatin, in higher forms, is derived by constructive metabolism from cytoplasm and is the end-product of the latter.

10. The secondary evolution of a cytoplasmic field led to a process of divergent evolution or in the production of two kinds of cells, the most primitive or ancestral of which was poorly provided with cytoplasm, while the secondary form was provided with a thick cytoplasmic envelope.

11. The primitive minute form of cell is to be identified as the asexual one, which afterwards became "male," while the large overgrown type of cell, loaded with cytoplasm and its secondary products, is to be identified as "female" or as a cell on the way towards disruption into male cells, which tendency it still betrays in the process of extrusion of polar bodies. The arrest of this process of fragmentation in the case of such large cells loaded with cytoplasm, led to the evolution of the ovum from the spermatogonium or such a cell as was primarily destined to produce male cells as a result of its further fission.

12. The male state is therefore the primitive one, and in the prodigious fertility of the male represents the primordial, asexual, flagellate types. The female cell is a secondary and derived form developed after a cytoplasmic field has been evolved and after cell-aggregates began to become coherent.

13. This differentiation was primarily due to cumulative integration, or assimilation beyond the current needs of the organism; the female cells to which this overgrowth was diverted have tended to grow far beyond the average dimensions of the other cells of the body of the parent, and this excessive size is proof that they have in some way lost the power to undergo spontaneous segmentation, except in the case of parthenogenesis. Cumulative integration is consequently responsible for the evolution of the asexual, sexual and parthenogenetic modes of reproduction.

14. Ovarian egg and spermatozoön are not homologous; ova after extrusion of polar bodies are the homologues of spermatozoa. Ovarian ova and spermatogonia are, in many cases, exactly homologous.

15. The expulsion of the polar bodies and detachment of the egg from the parent exhaust its power of continued spontaneous growth except in case of parthenogenesis.

16. The male cell as a consequence of the reduction of its cytoplasmic field at last became incapable of further independent development.

17. The male and female elements became reciprocally attractive to one another (sometimes through the production of certain chemical substances in the vicinity, Pfeffer), and in that their idioplasm is less different from one another than that of other cells there is no bar to their fusion, which is also favored by the fact that in the male cell with its preponderant chromatin there is now an attraction or need developed for more cytoplasm similar to its own diminished quantity, while conversely there is a similar need or attraction developed in the egg for additional chromatin in consequence of its preponderating cytoplasm. This leads to the highest form of cumulative integration through direct fusion of the male and female elements, or what I shall call reciprocal integration without loss of molecular identity, or as it is commonly called, to "fertilization." "Fertilization" is a reciprocal restoration of the equilibrium between the chromatin or nucleoplasm and the cytoplasm of both ovum and spermatozoön, this takes place not with accompanying molecular disintegration but by the actual fusion of both elements without the sacrifice of the molecular identity of either. Mutual digestion is not possible, for both elements are already composed of similar molecules. This molecular similarity constitutes the means through which the hereditary traits and tendencies of the male and female are transmitted.

18. The accumulation of cytoplasm in the egg through cumulative integration has enlarged its cytoplasmic field beyond that of any cell of the parent body. The result is that when "fertilization" occurs or fusion with the male cell, a series of segmentations are set up in this mass which are independent, and under the influence of new conditions, lead to the continuation of growth as the development of an embryo. This development is rendered directly possible only in virtue of the fact that there is a large cytoplasmic field in which nuclear motion and growth can take place in three dimensions temporarily without access of nutriment, while the resulting segmentations are coherent and tend to take place in such order and relation as to produce a being similar to the parent. The aggregation of large masses of segmentable plasma through the operation of cumulative and reciprocal integration has enabled the products of such simultaneous and successive segmentations to cohere and remain a multicellular aggregate, and to lay the foundation and become the direct cause of all metazoan and metaphytic organization.

19. The augmentation of the mass of the egg through cumulative integration and the development of the oösperm through reciprocal integration, has rendered possible the development of embryos without need of other nutriment during the preliminary or larval stages of ontogeny, thus leading also to the evolution of all larval forms, through processes of direct adaptation.

20. The achievement of the multicellular condition is probably to be

traced to the secondary evolution of a cytoplasmic field, sexuality also having so arisen at about the same time. The multicellular or coherent condition produced new and more complex morphological relations leading to the manifold differentiation of physiological functions in relation to diversification of surroundings, thus introducing a new and powerful cause or capacity for variations and adaptations under such diverse conditions. It is in the highest degree probable that the evolution of a cytoplasmic field and of sexuality, which depends upon the former, first rendered variability possible.

21. Cumulative integration in the vegetable led to the process of cumulative integration in the animal world and to the overproduction of germs or young in both of these kingdoms of life. The rate of increase thus became augmented in a geometrical ratio, as supposed upon the Darwinian hypothesis, which on the basis of the theory of the struggle for existence and the process of natural selection so evoked, accounts for the preservation through survival and inheritance of valuable or advantageous variations which first arose as supposed above. Cumulative integration is regarded as the primary cause of morphological differentiation under the stress of diverse conditions, as well as of the geometrical ratio of increase of individuals and consequently of the struggle for existence. The effects of the struggle for existence have however been modified through the already attained morphological differentiation of many forms in that the nature of further possible modifications have been in some cases very clearly determined by the character of those which have immediately preceded the last modification. This principle of cumulative adjustment through which superposition of adaptations occurs, is the law of cumulative morphological differentiation.

22. The only cells in multicellular forms which are absolutely otherwise functionless are the germ-cells. They alone, therefore, can become the vehicles for the transmission of all the traits of the parent in higher forms. They are the only cells of the body which, by any stretch of the imagination, can be supposed to possess the recapitulative power manifested in ontogeny.

23. In that the germinal cells are never belabored with any physiological function in the parent body, except cumulative integration, they are also the only ones which lead the charmed life of a perpetual youth. Upon this peculiarity of germ-cells depends rejuvenescence through reproduction, and the maintenance of the maximum vigor of the species.

24. In that maximum vigor of growth concentrated upon apical or nearly acropetal cells in plants determines their sex, and in that this seems to hold in great measure in Algæ and Fungi, and in that the gradually deeper inclusion of germ-cells and germ-tracts in animals is clearly a consequence partly of further morphological development, as well as of the effect of the repulsion of the functionless germ-cells into positions where

they are out of the way of interference with the exercise of the functions of the rest of the cells of the body, we have some clews to the reason why germ-cells are "set aside," not as the consequence of a *foreseen* (by the organism or natural selection) necessity for their isolation, *a la Weismann*, but as a consequence of the continuous action of cumulative integration ending in continuous growth, sexuality, morphological and physiological differentiation under the stress of surrounding conditions to which adaptive responses must as continuously be made.

25. With the evolution of the multicellular condition and sexuality, through cumulative integration, sexual correlations and interdependences between plants, insects and air-currents were evolved, as supposed in the text, while in animals sexual passion was evolved in the progress of sexual evolution. These factors became the motive forces which sustained the process of reciprocal integration or fertilization at its maximum of efficiency, and thus provided for the continuous rejuvenescence of living forms.

26. "Maternal" and "paternal" are relative terms. There was a time when asexual reproduction, through fission without karyokinesis, was effected by forms which were morphologically male. When individuals became developed in which the physiological functions of the individual were so adjusted automatically through a correlation of those functions as to impede the production of chromatin or nucleoplasm, presumably through the too rapid action of cumulative integration, cytoplasm was produced in a preponderating measure, the spermatogonia were hypertrophied and discharged before complete maturation as ova. In this way femaleness arose, and as "sex" thus became reflected in the physiological tendencies of the individuals of a species, some became male and others female. This carried the principle of the physiological division of labor beyond organs and extended it to individuals of the same species. The female, let me repeat, is a repressed male state.

27. In the production of female germs (ova, oöspheres) there occurs a prolonged process of integration of plasma so as to increase the volume of the cell-body, under conditions different from those obtaining in the production of male elements. In the production of male elements (spermatozoa, antherozoids), on the contrary, an actual process of elimination of cytoplasm often occurs, so as to reduce the latter to a minimum, and leave little remaining except the nucleus and its chromatin. The modes of production of the male and female elements, therefore, stand in the most extreme contrast to each other. The male state, on account of its prodigious fertility and the flagellate type of its products, is to be regarded as a reversion to the asexual method of reproduction as respects the physiological methods involved and the morphological character of the elements produced.

28. Reciprocal integration or sexual conjugation, otherwise "fertiliza-

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as a "device" intended to prevent parthenogenesis, as supposed by Balfour, nor is it established that one of them is extruded "ovogenetic" plasma, while the other is *conveniently* extruded to save Weismann's ancestral germ plasma from molecular disintegration!

35. The divergence of type from the oösperm was determined by variations in the surrounding conditions, the effects of which could not be reflected upon the germinal matter set aside through the continuous action of cumulative integration, resulting in continuous growth, except through the action of the concurrent metabolism so affected. Metabolism under diverse conditions was therefore the only source through which the idioplasms of species could be developed, through which the continuity of the phenomena of inheritance is maintained.

36. The principle of continuous growth through cumulative integration, its rhythmical interruption through the "setting aside" and dehiscence of the useless sexual elements, the evolution of a cytoplasmic field, the direct adaptation to their surroundings of colonial aggregates of cells resulting from the coherent segmentation of masses of plasma resulting from reciprocal integration, the necessarily cumulative superimposition of adaptations upon one another, have been, in the main, the materials upon which natural selection was dependent in order to become operative in biological evolution.

37. The view that the female is preponderatingly "anabolic" and the male "katabolic," as held by Geddes and Thomson, cannot be sustained on the basis fact, since it is readily demonstrated that the male element represents a higher product of constructive metabolism than the female.

38. The most important result of the evolution of sexuality is the physiological process of nuclear substitution through reciprocal integration or "fertilization," thus blending and superposing matter and energy from two sources and causing the latter to be potentially stored. Hunger has brought about the material overflow, the divergence of the sexual elements from a common basis has ended in the production of countless adaptive modifications and the evolution of "species," while the accessory devices favorable to conjugation which have been slowly and adaptively evolved have led to a gradually intensified expression of passion and love, which have become important motive forces in the drama of evolution at large.

PHOTO-COLLOTYPE, HOPE M'F'G CO.

THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY

FOUNDED MAY 25, 1743
INCORPORATED MARCH 15, 1780
FIRST OCCUPATION OF HALL NOVEMBER 21, 1789

PROCEEDINGS

COMMEMORATIVE OF THE

CENTENNIAL ANNIVERSARY

OF THE

Death of Benjamin Franklin

APRIL 17, 1890

COMMITTEE OF ARRANGEMENTS

CHARLES A OLIVER *Chairman*

HENRY PHILLIPS JR — WILLIAM JOHN POTTS

ARTHUR BIDDLE — WILLIAM H GREENE

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOL. XXVIII. APRIL 17, 1890. No. 133.

IN COMMEMORATION OF THE ONE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE DECEASE OF BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

April 17, 1890.

At a stated meeting of the Society, held January 17, 1890, Dr. Oliver offered the following preamble and resolution:

WHEREAS, It is both honorable and just that we, the present representatives of the American Philosophical Society, should show our affection and regard for our illustrious founder and first President, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who died on the 17th day of April, 1790, be it,

Resolved, That we commemorate his life, his wisdom, his labors, and his achievements by proper and fitting ceremonies becoming such an occasion, on the 17th day of April, 1890; the form of the commemoration to be referred to a Special Committee of five members, to be appointed by the President, who shall be empowered to take all necessary action.

Which, after discussion, was adopted.

The President subsequently appointed as such Committee, Messrs. Charles A. Oliver, Henry Phillips, Jr., Arthur Biddle, William John Potts and William H. Greene.

At a stated meeting of the Society, held on February

tion," is an asexual method of reproduction superimposed or blended with another in which the last evolved sexual element has been hypertrophied as an ovum. The exhaustion of the central controlling mass of nucleoplasm or chromatin after expulsion of the polar bodies, together with the great size of the egg, has rendered it passive. The recurrence of the minute flagellate condition as "male" has rendered the male element active.

29. Male and female "sexual" products were at first and still continue to be dehisced as useless products of overassimilation or as a consequence of the cumulative action of integration, after further recapitulative growth in the form of new axes or individuals, growing in organic union, as in colonial organisms, became impossible, due to crowding, the culmination of seasonal growth or the morphological specialization leading to definite or constant formal individuality.

30. The "setting aside" of germ plasma must therefore be attributed to the direct action of cumulative integration, and cannot logically be considered as a "device" through which the immortality-isolation of germinal matter was to be achieved as a purpose or end.

31. Continuity of growth as continuously maintained through the physical capacity for living matter to increase its mass, was the primary factor in divergent evolution. The first step which it effected in adaptation was the necessity for segmentation either with or without karyokinesis, according to the law of Leuckart and Spencer. As soon as coherent, successive segmentations became possible, the first stage of which is seen in *Volvox*, the first step of morphological differentiation also conformed directly to the requirements of external conditions in that a blastula form was assumed which gave the maximum of surface in combination with the simplest form of coherence which could be developed through successive and simultaneous coherent processes of cleavage.

32. Sexuality, parthenogenesis, the extrusion of the polar bodies, larval development and the direct divergence of all higher types from the oösperm, are some of the effects of continuous growth as caused by continuous cumulative integration working under diverse conditions and the capacity to make direct adaptive responses.

33. The available evidence tends to show that sex is not predetermined in the egg, but is dependent upon internal conditions and correlations of metabolic activity within an embryo, so that sex may very often be influenced directly by the regulation of the food-supply long after development has begun.

34. The polar bodies are a phylogenetic reminiscence of the asexual or male flagellate state. There is not the slightest evidence to show that they are other than one of the manifold effects of continuous growth impelled to proceed as supposed above. They can certainly not be identified

as a "device" intended to prevent parthenogenesis, as supposed by Balfour, nor is it established that one of them is extruded "ovogenetic" plasma, while the other is *conveniently* extruded to save Weismann's ancestral germ plasma from molecular disintegration!

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36. The principle of continuous growth through cumulative integration, its rhythmical interruption through the "setting aside" and dehiscence of the useless sexual elements, the evolution of a cytoplasmic field, the direct adaptation to their surroundings of colonial aggregates of cells resulting from the coherent segmentation of masses of plasma resulting from reciprocal integration, the necessarily cumulative superimposition of adaptations upon one another, have been, in the main, the materials upon which natural selection was dependent in order to become operative in biological evolution.

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B. FRANKLIN L.L.D. F.R.S. PRESIDENT OF PENNSYLVANIA, & LATE MINISTER OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AT THE COURT OF FRANCE. HIS EXCELLENCY

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WHEREAS, It is both honorable and just that we, the present representatives of the American Philosophical Society, should show our affection and regard for our illustrious founder and first President, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who died on the 17th day of April, 1790, be it,

Resolved, That we commemorate his life, his wisdom, his labors, and his achievements by proper and fitting ceremonies becoming such an occasion, on the 17th day of April, 1890; the form of the commemoration to be referred to a Special Committee of five members, to be appointed by the President, who shall be empowered to take all necessary action.

Which, after discussion, was adopted.

The President subsequently appointed as such Committee, Messrs. Charles A. Oliver, Henry Phillips, Jr., Arthur Biddle, William John Potts and William H. Greene.

At a stated meeting of the Society, held on February

7, 1890, Dr. Oliver reported the following preamble and resolutions, which were adopted, and the same committee continued and requested to make all the arrangements necessary to carry out the same:

The Committee to which was referred the following preamble and resolution: "Deeming it both honorable and just that we, the present representatives of the American Philosophical Society, should show our affection and regard for our illustrious Founder and First President, Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who died on the 17th day of April, 1790, be it resolved that we commemorate his life, his wisdom, his labors and his achievements by proper and fitting ceremonies becoming such an occasion, on the 17th day of April, 1890; the form of the commemoration to be referred to a special committee of five members, who shall be empowered to take all necessary action," presented by Dr. Oliver at the meeting of the Society on the 17th of January, 1890, begs respectfully to submit the following report:

Resolved, That we commemorate in a becoming manner the approaching Centennial Anniversary of the death of Benjamin Franklin.

Resolved, That a series of short addresses upon his life, character and work be delivered before the Society upon this occasion.

On the 17th day of April, 1890, at 8 P.M., the Society and its invited guests assembled at Association Hall, in the city of Philadelphia, and Mr. Talcott Williams, introducing the speakers, made the following remarks:

Mr. President and Associates of the American Philosophical Society, Ladies and Gentlemen, and last, but most honored of all on this occasion, the descendants of Dr. Franklin: Few words of mine are needed to explain the occasion of our meeting or to refer to the men who are to address you. None are necessary to recall him or the memory of his death. We assemble not to widen his fame—an impossible task—but to deepen and display our loyalty to our founder and first head. This anniversary itself falls in a week

thick sown with memory. It was but two days since that there was commemorated in this city, the anniversary which rounded out twenty-five years since the death of the first American of this century.* To-night we meet in recognition of one hundred years which have elapsed since the death of the first American of any century.

For us all the death of Lincoln still brings senses of loss for a leader taken away with his work unfulfilled, his mission unaccomplished. For none in the generation which stood by the open grave in which were buried the hopes of one section and the sorrow of both, can "the lilacs bloom with blossom of mastering odor" without thought that "the sweetest, wisest soul of all our days and lands" passed away when the task of retribution was over, and before the office of reconciliation began. To-night, as a century ago, the death of Franklin can only remind men that he left no task unaccomplished and no aim unfulfilled. In the supreme prosperity of his life nothing became him like its leaving. *Felix opportunitate mortis*, not like the Roman of old, in death escaping evil to come, but leaving countless and completed good behind. Death, for other men, lays the corner-stone of that fabric of appreciation and honor which posterity erects. For Franklin the hands of death set in place the cap-stone of the great structure which noble deeds had raised in honor, whose fame we cherish and whose shadow the descending years of a century still lengthen and prolong.

It is not our task to-night to magnify his deeds or add to his praises. In the presence of a career like his, eulogy is an impertinence and praise presumption.

* The Twenty-fifth Anniversary of Abraham Lincoln's death was celebrated in Philadelphia by the delivery by Walt Whitman of his address on the subject, April 15, 1890.

We assemble but to ratify and record the final judgment of a century. One hundred years ago, when this Society called upon one of its members to commemorate his life among them and his labors for man, it was possible to ask of a single speaker* to express the world's estimate of Benjamin Franklin. To-night that great monument of his achievements which death completed when no man's effort could add aught to it, has cast so broad a shadow across one hundred years, that no one, however able, can compass its breadth within the circumference of his intellectual horizon. Along whichever of the many paths that Franklin traveled to greatness, lesser men may wearily plod to-day, each is still aware, however high he may ascend, that his experience is too narrow and his vision too short to know and survey all the field of Franklin's achievements in the past or their fruits in the present. One hundred years ago, we heard one speaker; to-night we listen to five. For this occasion this Society has summoned here the biographer of Franklin; it has called upon the historian of the land in which he served his country abroad; upon the man of science; upon one both the man of science and letters, and lastly, to represent the civic and associated acclivities in which Franklin was engaged, upon the President of this Society. From this jury, thus constituted, presenting the garner of all the manifold fields which Franklin sowed to rich fame for himself and richer harvest for others, we hear summed up to-night the verdict of the century. This finding, which but ratifies the earlier presentment made by that greater jury which includes the civilized world,

* After the death of Franklin, Dr. William Smith was appointed by the American Philosophical Society to pronounce a eulogy upon the founder.

will have its full and ultimate record in the volume which this Society will transmit to learned societies through the world. It will give the acts and the character which have placed Franklin alone in all history as the one man who inspired the enthusiasm of France and satisfied the sober judgment of the English-speaking race—the solitary and unique figure in our history or in any history whose work and fame and name is alike honored, cherished and loved by the two opposing streams whose conflict is the history of twenty human centuries—the Latin and the Teuton.

Many biographers have emulated the record in which Franklin, all too briefly, told the story of his early life. We have to-night with us the only one of these biographers who has set in life and light those dreary past Revolutionary years, when as in those now passing and passed the high tide of war had ebbed and uncovered endless corruption when, as to-day, the State must be served and saved, if served and saved at all, while the clash of party and the din of faction drowned the nobler voice of principle. In describing that period when the hands of Franklin guided to its last, its final, its eternal abiding place the corner-stone of constitutional liberty, and all the morning stars of heaven sang together with joy as the pillars of organic law arose above the foundations of freedom, our historian has described the character and achievements of Franklin in a passage which will be cherished and remembered with the like utterances of Jeffrey and of Mackintosh; of Brougham and of Brancroft. He resumes to-night the task which he there began. I need not introduce, I need only present to you, the youngest and most widely read of American historians, John Bach McMaster, who will give you

foot of the treaty of alliance with France, at the foot of the treaty of peace with England and at the foot of the Constitution under which we now live.

In introducing Mr. Frederick Fraley, the President of the American Philosophical Society, Mr. Williams said:

In all the long list of achievements which make the biography of Franklin read like the history of his country, nothing has proved more useful or lasting than the societies and associations which he established. Born in a land whose countrymen have a gènius for organization, he had himself supreme aptitude for this work and was equally at home in drafting the Constitution of a fire company or of a Nation. Transmitted to his descendants in one generation after another, the exercise of a like power has given this city institutions of the highest value, the last of which, of the utmost importance to a manufacturing city, owes its origin and success to one of his descendants, whom sex and sex alone debars from membership in our Society.* Of all the societies which Franklin organized, the American Philosophical Society has proved the most conspicuous, the best known in the field of science and, we may modestly believe, the most useful in the service of his and our country. I have the high honor of introducing its President, who will address you upon

* Among other institutions in Philadelphia, the Philadelphia City High School was established, in 1831, by A. D. Bache, LL.D., a grandson of Dr. Franklin, and the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art owed its foundation in 1876 and its growth afterwards, principally to the efforts of Mrs. E. D. Gillespie, a great-granddaughter of the philosopher.

Benjamin Franklin's Association with the Society.

It is difficult for me to realize that I stand here to-night as the representative of the American Philosophical Society briefly to present to you Dr. Franklin as the founder of that Society, as the spirit which influenced its life, as the one who crowned its career with the scientific honors of the day in which he lived; the Society that has endeavored to perpetuate his memory by an adherence to the principles which he incorporated in its origin and which have been faithfully, I think, preserved by his successors.

The origin of the American Philosophical Society may be traced to that junto which Franklin established in the city of Philadelphia when he was about twenty-two or twenty-three years of age, for the promotion of useful knowledge. His associates, with himself, prosecuted their studies and their deliberations with such success that it influenced, no doubt, all of their careers, but especially the career of Benjamin Franklin. He never forgot his early introduction to the kingdom of knowledge and he went on year by year with the great idea in his mind and memory that a part of his life-work was to be found in the establishment of a great Society having for its object the promoting of useful knowledge. In the year 1740 he issued his proposals for the formation of such a Society and labored sedulously for its accomplishment, sketching out the objects that it should pursue, the duties that its members should perform, their applications to science and to each other, and, aware that there must be a pilot to steer the ship and a man to keep the log, was not ambitious to be president of the Society, but took upon himself the humble office of its secretary. He performed the duties appertaining to that office with such fidelity and success that it reached a considerable point of

influence in its existence. Then the jealousy of the times and the jealousy of Franklin led to the establishment of another Society claiming part of the title of the American Philosophical institution established by Franklin and the attempt to carry on an opposition society to his, with great damage to both, and with the result that about the year 1768, the gentlemen composing those institutions, finding that both could not survive, that there was not room enough in the city of Philadelphia for two institutions of the sort—happily coalesced, and on January 2, 1769, Benjamin Franklin was elected President of the associated institutions and continued to be reëlected for twenty-one years, from 1769 to 1790, without any opposition on the part of any member of the institution.

Our friend, Prof. McMaster, has given you a brief but admirable biography of Franklin's life, telling the story of his birth, of his early education, of his trials, and of his triumphs. In his connection with the American Philosophical Society you will recognize all the traits we have seen so skillfully delineated and which have marked the institution that bears the stamp of his creative genius, which has been influenced throughout its existence by his spirit, and which to-day, as our friend, Mr. McMaster, has told you, has its correspondents throughout the whole of the world of science, has upon its list of members distinguished scientific men of every country, representatives of all the departments of science in cities of the United States, and is preparing still to go on, carrying forward the good work that Franklin founded, that has been so successful in the hands of his successors, and we are hoping that Franklin's shadow will always be within view to guide the destinies of the Society to new honors and to new triumphs.

The minutes of that early Society that he founded in 1742 are still in existence in the beautiful handwriting of the philoso-

pher, and its pages are turned over year by year by visitors to the halls of the Society; who tracing in the lines which he there wrote, realize to a certain extent the character of the man, the carefulness with which he did everything, and whether he turned his attention to the curing of smoky chimneys, or to the invention of an improved fire-place, or to drawing the lightning from the heavens and demonstrating its identity with electricity, or in proposing new theories of light and heat, or in encouraging the manufacture of large sheets of paper, or in his correspondence with the distinguished members of the Society—in all these things his connection with the American Philosophical Society illustrates the character of the man and the institutions which he founded in Philadelphia, cognating their purposes for the promotion of useful knowledge and which still remain and flourish among us in the types of the library company of Philadelphia, the old University of Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia Contributionship for the insurance of houses against loss by fire, the establishment of the first fire engine company of Philadelphia. Whether we look for him in the fields of philosophy or in the walks of business, or in works such as the framing of declarations of independence, constitutions or treaties, the admirable character of Benjamin Franklin is impressed upon every one of these things to which I have referred. And especially has his character been impressed upon the foundations, the traditions, the applications of the American Philosophical Society. That Society honors him as its founder and participates in honoring him in all those illustrations of human character to which our historian, Mr. McMaster, has referred and which have crowned our country with so much honor, with so many blessings and with such useful instruction to rising generations.

In introducing Mr. G. Brown Goode, Mr. Williams said:

American science owed its foundation and its first great discovery to a master of English style. The example of Franklin has never been forgotten by the scientific men of America. The record of their work has often become a part of the literature of their land. The clarity of their style has matched the brilliancy of their discoveries. It has been especially true of the Smithsonian Institution, which owes its endowment to the liberality of a private citizen, a liberality whose infectious example ought to attract new additions to his useful gift, that it has maintained in its registers of advancing knowledge, the dignity as well as the accuracy of science. A Henry and a Langley both remind us that the ability to make great discoveries may well be joined with the capacity to give them adequate expression. Representing a scientific institution with these traditions, Mr. Goode has come to be naturally selected to speak of the attainments of a man of science in the field of letters. With much of Mr. Goode's labors we are all familiar. The literature of our woods will never be complete without including the pages of Audubon, and the full record of our seas begins with the work of Goode. To this research, whose fruits are known to many, he has added labors in the field of early American literature whose results we hear to-night. As representing at once, organized science and literary research, I have the honor to introduce to you, Mr. G. Brown Goode, of the Smithsonian Institution, who will speak upon

The Literary Labors of Benjamin Franklin.

When the New World sent Franklin to Europe, England and France received him, without question, as the equal of their own greatest men. Lavoisier, Turgot and Raynal, Buffon, Rousseau and Condorcet were his admirers, Gibbon, Hume, and Adam Smith, Kames, Robertson, Bentham and Priestly, his friends, while to the poet Cowper praise by him atoned for all the carpings of the critics.

When he first met Voltaire, in the hall of the French Academy of Sciences, the two old men saluted affectionately, amid the tears and the applause of the spectators, and it was proclaimed through Europe that Sophocles and Solon had embraced.

His colleague, John Adams, by no means the most ardent of his admirers, said of him:

" His reputation was more universal than that of Leibnitz or Newton, Frederick the Great or Voltaire, and his character more beloved and esteemed than any or all of them. Newton had astonished, perhaps, forty or fifty men in Europe; for not more than that number, probably, at any one time had read him and understood him, and these being held in admiration in their respective countries, at the head of the philosophers, had spread among scientific people a mysterious wonder at the genius of this, perhaps the greatest man that ever lived. But *his* fame was confined to men of letters. The common people cared nothing about such a recluse philosopher. Leibnitz's name was still more confined. Frederick was hated by one-half Europeans much as Napoleon is. Voltaire was considered as a vain and profligate wit, and not esteemed by anybody, though admired by all who knew his works. But Franklin's fame was universal. His name was familiar to

government and people; to kings, courtiers, nobility, clergy, and philosophers, as well as to plebeians, to such a degree that there was scarcely a peasant or a citizen, coachman or footman, a lady's chambermaid or a scullion in the kitchen who was not familiar with his name, and who did not consider him as a friend of human kind. When they spoke of him, they seemed to think he was to restore the golden age."

In a nation of three millions, he was first in every field of action, as printer, publisher, editor, and humorist—in political economy, administration and statesmanship, in science, philosophy, diplomacy, and in literature. He stands to-day a colossal figure in the world's memory, his popularity in no wise lessened by lapse of time, and Americans still wonder at his stature, seemingly unable to measure the extent of his greatness. In Europe he is still thought the first of Americans, the most perfect embodiment of the spirit and genius of his country, and its one great writer who lived before the days of Irving.

His easy-going freedom of speech, his liberal views on theological questions and his irreverence, coupled with a certain coarseness, almost Rabelaisian, in his early writings, have lessened his popularity among educated Americans. Then, too, the subjects of which he wrote—the current political issues, the manners and morals of every-day people, common abuses and how to do away with them, passing events and their lessons, household economies, and the like—although they gave him a great popular audience, were not of the kind best fitted to call forth the admiration of his literary contemporaries.

His choice of subjects was, nevertheless, the best evidence of his preëminence. "Great men are more distinguished by range and extent than by originality. A great man does not wake up on some fine morning and say, 'I am full of life, I

will go to sea, and find an Antarctic continent; to-day I will square the circle; I will ransack botany, and find a new food for man; I have a new architecture in my mind; I foresee a new mechanic power.' No; but he finds himself in the river of thoughts and events, forced onward by the ideas and necessities of his contemporaries. He stands where all the eyes of man look one way, and their hands all point in the direction in which he should go. The church has reared him amidst rites and pomps, and he carries out the advice which her music gave him, and builds a cathedral needed by her chants and processions. He finds a war raging; it educates him by trumpet, in barracks, and he betters the instruction. He finds two counties groping to bring coal, or flour, or fish, from the place of production to the place of consumption, and he hits on a railroad. Every master has found his materials collected, and his power lay in his sympathy with his people, and in his love of the materials he wrought in." *

The spirit of the hour was Franklin's constant inspiration, and his writings were a legitimate result, the natural outgrowth of his activity in all matters of public concern. Admirable in themselves, their chief interest is nevertheless due to the fact that they form so complete a record of the deeds and the personal character of their author.

"Though he was a voluminous writer and one of the great masters of English expression, Franklin wrote habitually with a single eye to immediate practical results. He never posed for posterity. Of all the writings to which he mainly owes his present fame, it would be difficult to name one which he gave to the press himself or of which he saw the proof. Yet he never wrote a dull line nor many which the century of time has robbed of their interest or value. What-

* Emerson.

ever he wrote seems to have been conceived upon a scale which embraced the whole human race, as well as the individual or class to whom it was specifically addressed, the one evidence of true greatness which never deceives nor misleads. If he wrote to his wife, it was, more or less, a letter from every husband to his wife; if to his daughter, it was a letter that any daughter would be pleased to receive from her father; if to a philosopher or statesman, there was always that in the manner or matter of it which time cannot stale, and which will be read by every statesman and philosopher with the sort of interest they would have felt had it been addressed personally to them." *

The gathering of "Frankliniana" has become of late years a favorite pursuit of book lovers, and there are many excellent private collections besides the magnificent assemblages of his printed books, manuscripts and imprints in the public libraries of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Washington. The pioneer in this movement was Prof. Justin Winsor, who, in 1869, established a Franklin Alcove in the Boston Public Library, for the reason, as he said at the time, "that Franklin is to Boston what Shakespeare is to England."

A complete library of Frankliniana, including not only the books by him and about him, but also the products of his press, would embrace nearly two thousand separate units. Such a collection would possess a very great value in money. †

Several bibliographies of Franklin have been printed. One

* Bigelow's Preface to Franklin's Works.

† One of his imprints, the translation of Cicero's "Cato Major," in good condition, has sold for $200. A complete series of "Poor Richard" would be almost priceless. Of the twenty-six numbers, the Pennsylvania Historical Society had, when Ford's book was printed, only sixteen; the Lenox Library, seventeen; the Library Company of Philadelphia, twenty-one; the Congressional Library, thirteen; and the American Philosophical Society, one, which, however, is the first. Of the issues of 1734 and 1735 none are in the possession of any of these libraries.

of the most serviceable is that of Sparks in the latter part of his tenth volume. Another is the admirable one of Lindsay Swift, printed seven years ago by the Boston Public Library. The latest and fullest is the "Franklin Bibliography," of Paul Leicester Ford, a very stout octavo volume of nearly five hundred pages, which is intended mainly for the collector and is a minute and exhaustive catalogue of the variations of every possible bibliographical unit.

In this are cited nine hundred and ninety-seven titles, arranged as follows:

I.	Books and pamphlets wholly or partly written by Franklin.	1–600
II.	Periodicals and serials containing writings of Franklin....	601–618
III.	State Papers and Treaties, in forming which Franklin aided.	619–633
IV.	Works containing letters of Franklin........................	639–709
V.	Pseudonyms used by Franklin.	710–784
	Works relating to, written to, or dedicated to Franklin.	790–1002
	In addition to these there are named in the accompanying Reference List other publications, relating in part to Franklin, to the number of....................................	508

Of the six hundred titles given by Ford in his list of books wholly or partly written by Franklin, there are only about ninety which represent distinct efforts of authorship, even though prefaces, notes in books written by others, and broadsides be counted. The remaining titles relate to reprints, advertisements, and hypothetical publications of which no copies are known to exist.

Franklin's literary remains may be classified as follows:

1. The Autobiography—from 1706 to 1757.
2. Poor Richard's Almanac, in twenty-six annual issues, 1732–58, culminating in "Father Abraham's Speech at the Auction."
3. Essays upon Manners, Morals and the Science of Life, including the so-called Bagatelles, in all sixty titles or more.
4. Tracts and Papers upon Political Economy, Finance, and the Science of Government; in all about forty titles.

5. Essays and Tracts, Historical and Political, concerning the American Revolution and the events which immediately preceded and followed—1747–1790.
6. Scientific Papers—from 1737–1790; in all 221 titles and nearly 900 pages, octavo.
7. Correspondence, Diplomatic, Domestic and Literary—1724–90; in all, some twelve hundred letters, while many still remain unpublished.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

The autobiography, prepared between the ages of sixty-five and eighty-three, is one of the most remarkable books ever written. It was intended for his son, and certain intimate friends, and was not published until after the death of its author, and was never printed as it had been written until a few years ago, when, in 1874, Mr. John Bigelow issued a correct version from the original manuscript, which by marvelous good fortune had fallen into his hands, while Minister at the Court of France.

The autobiography has passed through at least one hundred and seventy editions, and has been translated into German, French, Danish, and Spanish.

To understand it properly, the reader should use Bigelow's edition and none other—for its editor, with admirable skill, has supplemented Franklin's own narrative, complete in itself up to 1757, by a series of extracts from his letters and other writings, so that it is told in the philosopher's own words, and is complete almost to the day of his death.

During the twenty-eight years of his residence abroad, from 1758 to 1785, he was in constant correspondence with the governments he represented, and with his friends, who were numerous and to whom he wrote at length and with great freedom.

"To his protracted expatriation," writes Bigelow, "we owe

this fact, that there is scarcely an important incident in Franklin's life which is not described by himself in his memoirs, or in his correspondence; and it is to this vast treasury of sterling English, which seems to have been almost miraculously preserved from incalculable perils by sea and by land, that the legion of his biographers have been indebted for what has most contributed to render their writing attractive.

"I am not aware that any other eminent man has left so complete a record of his own life. The part of which, from the nature of things, could not be preserved in correspondence—his youth and early manhood; his years of discipline and preparation—has been made as familiar as household words to at least three generations, in those imperishable pages which, in the full maturity of his faculties and experiences he prepared at the special in·tance of his friends, Le Veillard, Rochefoucault, and Vaughan. From the period when that fragment closes until his death, we have a continuous, I might almost say, a daily record of his life, his labors, his anxieties, and his triumphs, from his own pen, and written when all the incidents and emotions they awakened were most fresh and distinct in his mind.*

THE ALMANAC.

Franklin's Almanac is interesting in itself, but far more so in its effects on the history of American letters and American life. It was the beginning of our American periodical literature, the first successful serial, the pioneer of the great army of magazines and reviews which, even now, stand in the place of public libraries to the great majority of our people.

Franklin's was not a monthly, or even a quarterly; it was an annual magazine of instructive and entertaining literature.

* "Life," p. 6.

He was the most experienced of American journalists, the editor and principal contributor of the *New England Courant*, when, in 1723, it threw Boston into tumult, and, in 1729, founder of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, for more than half a century the leading newspaper in the New World. He fully appreciated the possibilities of periodical literature in America and established, in 1741, a monthly called "The General Magazine and Historical Chronicle for all the British Provinces in America," * an effort which failed because the country was not yet ready.

The Almanac was to the people of that day, what the weeklies and monthlies have become to their great-grandchildren. Franklin began to print it in 1732, and it soon became a necessity in every household from New England to the Carolinas, and made the name of "Poor Richard" famous all over the world. Within twenty-five years, at least a quarter of a million copies of this treasury of homely wisdom had been distributed throughout the colonies.

Franklin wished that his Almanac should be a vehicle for conveying instruction among the common people, who bought scarcely any other books. He, therefore, filled all the little spaces between the remarkable days in the calendar with proverbial sentences, chiefly such as inculcated industry and frugality as the means of procuring wealth and thereby securing virtue; "it being," as he said, "more difficult for a man in want to act always honestly than it is hard for an empty sack to stand upright." Finally he brought together in a connected fabric, all the best of the sayings of Poor Richard for twenty-five years, in the form of the harangue of a wise old man to the people attending an auction. "Father Abraham's Speech," "The Way to Wealth," or "La Science du Bonhomme

* Six numbers of this periodical were printed.

Richard," as this composition was variously called, touched by its simple wisdom, responsive chords in the hearts of all simple-minded people.

Its influence was amazingly great. No one was better able than Franklin to judge of its extent, no one less likely to exaggerate it.

Writing about it, in 1788, he said:

"The piece, being universally approved, was copied in all the newspapers of the continent; reprinted in Britain on broadsides, to be stuck up in houses; two translations were made of it in French, and great numbers bought by the clergy and gentry to distribute gratis among their poor parishioners and tenants. In Pennsylvania, as it discouraged useless expense in foreign superfluities, some thought it had its share in producing that growing plenty of money which was observable for several years after its publication." *

Ford's bibliography shows that since it was written, one hundred and twenty-three years ago, "Father Abraham's Speech" has been reprinted about three times for each year. Seventy or more separate editions in English have appeared, fifty-six in French, eleven in German, and some in Italian. It was printed in Danish at Copenhagen (1801, 1820); in Catalan at Montroulez (1820) and Morlais (1832); in Greek in Paris (1823); in Dutch at The Hague (1828); in Portuguese in Paris (1828); in Bohemian at Teshen (1838); in Welsh in London (1839); in Spanish at Caracas in Venezuela (1858); in Russian at St. Petersburg (1809), and in Chinese at Peking (in 1884), as well as in Polish and the phonetic characters.

Ford is quite justified in saying that it has been oftener printed and translated than any other book from an American pen.

* Autobiography, Bigelow edition, i, 250.

THE ESSAYS.

Franklin's essays represented his most finished work. Among them indeed are the only compositions written with a distinctly artistic purpose. Many years after his death a small, thin portfolio was found among his papers. On its cover was written "BAGATELLES," and within were fifteen or more of his own favorite essays. These were prepared for the entertainment of that brilliant circle of friends in Paris, in whose meetings the venerable author took so much delight. Among them were many of his most graceful and witty productions —such as "The Morals of Chess," "The Dialogue between Franklin and the Gout" and "The Ephemera."

The Bagatelles were written when he was over seventy. In some of his satires, half a century earlier in date, as for instance "The Speech of Mistress Polly Baker," he exhibited equal force and skill, though a wit less mellow and refined and a style less polished through familiarity with French literature.

His essay writing began when he contributed to his brother's newspaper in Boston a series of satirical letters signed "Silence Dogood"—which are highly praised by those who have read them. "So well," says McMaster, "did the lad catch the spirit, the peculiar diction, the humor of his model, the *Spectator*, that he seems to have written with a copy of Addison open before him."

Seven years later he prepared for a Philadelphia newspaper, *The Mercury*, a series of essays under the title of "The Busy Body." This was his first effort in a strictly literary direction. Some admirer has described them as being written "after the manner of the *Spectator*, but more readable."

Although the critic of to-day may not fully agree with this judgment, he cannot fail to be pleased with the graceful, easy

flow of the words, and at the same time, interested in the evidences of the young printer's extensive and intelligent acquaintance with the best of English books.

After he became owner of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* he wrote for it essays in the same vein, many of which have been reprinted in recent editions of his writings.

Some of the essays were humorous or satirical, others related to religious and moral subjects and the economy of life, others still to the current events of the day. Among them was an admirable exposition of what was then known about earthquakes; and this, published in 1737, was his first contribution to scientific literature.

When he was living in England he constantly wrote for the press, and among his productions at this time were a number of papers, which although an essential part of his political writings, should also be included in that carefully-edited collection of Franklin's essays for which the world has been expectantly waiting for a hundred years. Among the best are the "Receipt for Diminishing a Great Empire," and the "Remarks Concerning the Savages of North America," written in Paris a few years later, which rank among the most brilliant of political satires.

HIS DOMESTIC AND LITERARY CORRESPONDENCE.

Franklin was the brightest and most charming of correspondents, and there is not one of his letters which is in the least degree dull or formal.

Over 1200 are printed by Bigelow, and they make up at least nine-tenths of the bulk of his literary remains. Many of them are little essays, and should be included in every edition of his short papers. In no connection are they more

readable than as arranged by Mr. Bigelow* to form a part of the autobiography. "To be fully understood and appreciated," writes Bigelow, "they (as well as all the rest of his writings) should be read in chronological order and by the light of current events, for every one of them was as much the product of its time and circumstances as the fruits and flowers of a garden are of their respective seasons."

Though the signature is always "B. Franklin," the writer is sometimes the statesman, sometimes the shrewd, practical tradesman, sometimes the philosopher, sometimes the inventor concerned with mechanical details—now the philanthropist, now the wily diplomat, again the loving husband and parent, interested above all things in the affairs of his own little family, again the brilliant man of the world, gossiping with Madame Helvetius or the Abbé Morellet.

"His letters," said John Foster, "abound in tokens of benevolence, sparkling not unfrequently with satiric pleasantry, but of a bland, good-natured kind, arising in the most easy, natural manner, and thrown off with admirable simplicity and brevity of expression. There are short discussions relating to various arts and conveniences of life, plain instructions for persons deficient in cultivation, and the means for it; condolences on the death of friends, and frequent references, in an advanced stage of the correspondence, to his old age and approaching death. Moral principles and questions are sometimes considered and simplified; and American affairs are often brought in view, though not set forth in the diplomatic style."

It would seem impossible that the man who wrote at times so seriously and devoutly could have been also the author of the so-called "Suppressed Letters." Between the ages of fifteen

* Bigelow's "Franklin," i, p. 21.

and eighty-five, however, a human character has time for many transformations.

TREATISES UPON POLITICAL ECONOMY.

At the age of twenty-three, in 1729, Franklin published his "Modest Enquiry into the Nature and Necessity of Paper Money"—perhaps the earliest treatise on finance and currency written in America.

This pamphlet was written at a time of public crisis, and for a definite purpose, which was successful. It was the first of a series of political essays, published from time to time in the sixty-two years of life which remained to its author—each with some useful end in view, and each without exception productive of some definite result.

Edmond Burke was wont to say that when Franklin appeared before the British Parliament, he was like "a master examined before a parcel of school-boys," and Charles Fox declared that the ministry on that occasion "were mere dwarfs in the hand of a master."

Persuasive and convincing as were his spoken words, the power of the man was even more evident when he took up his pen to write upon topics of public interest. His political papers, however, have little meaning at the present time except to students familiar with the history of the days to which they belong, though read in connection with the story of his life they have a very great interest of their own.

In 1751 appeared "Observations Concerning the Increase of Mankind and the Peopling of Countries"—to which it would appear that Adam Smith in later years was indebted for suggestions, and which led Malthus to write his great "Essay on Population."

Franklin wrote other useful treatises, "On the Laboring

Poor," on "The Principles of Trade," on "Luxury, Idleness and Industry," on war, privateering and the Court of the Peers, and many kindred topics. None of his economical treatises were so original or so influential as the two which were first written. The last in the list, however, "On the Slave Trade," although finished only twenty-four days before his death and at the age of eighty-five, is as full of vigor and fire as his best efforts of a quarter of a century previous. It contains the speech of Mehemet Ibrahim in the Divan of Algiers, which Lord Jeffrey declared was not surpassed by any of the pleasantries of Arbuthnot or Swift.

POLITICAL WRITINGS.

Franklin's first political treatise was written in 1747.

The war between Great Britain and France, which was at that time in progress, was thought to have brought the American colonies into great danger, and the governor of Pennsylvania anxiously labored to prevail upon the Quaker Assembly to pass a militia law and to make other provisions for the security of the province. To further this project, Franklin wrote and published a pamphlet, entitled "Plain Truth," which had a sudden and surprising effect, and resulted in a few weeks in the organization of a colonial militia of over ten thousand men. This was the beginning of the conversion of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania from the Quaker doctrine of submission to that of defensive warfare, and had a most important influence upon the future of America.*

*Bigelow says of this pamphlet:

"Substituting the words 'United States' for Pennsylvania, it is as timely to-day as when it was written. Though we are at peace with all nations, we have many times as many lives and many times as much property exposed, while our defenses are relatively inferior to those which Franklin denounced nearly a century and a half ago as unpardonably deficient" (Bigelow's "Franklin," Vol. ii, p. 39).

"Plain Truth" was followed by several other tracts in relation to the struggle between Pennsylvania and the Proprietary Government in the hands of the Penn family. The most influential was that called "Cool Thoughts on the Present Situation of our Public Affairs," printed in 1764, which was a masterly argument in favor of a change from Proprietary to a Royal Government.

During his residence in England before the Revolution, and in France during its continuance and afterwards, Franklin wrote much. One of the most important of his early papers was that printed in London in 1760, entitled "The Interest of Great Britain in Regard to Her Colonies," a protest against the proposal that Great Britain should give up Canada to the French, and receive instead the Island of Guadaloupe in the West Indies.

So strong a paper was this that Burke, in replying to it, said of its author: "He is clearly the ablest, the most ingenuous, and the most dexterous of those who have written upon the question, and we may therefore conclude that he has said everything in the best manner that the case would bear."

These, however, together with his more extensive treatises upon the condition of affairs in the new Republic, belong to the statesman Franklin, rather than to Franklin the man of letters. Together with his diplomatic correspondence they make up fully half of his published works.

SCIENTIFIC WRITINGS.

Franklin's scientific writings were voluminous. Sparks reprinted 63 papers on electricity, filling 302 pages, and 157 on philosophical subjects, making 578 pages—in all 220 letters and 880 pages—which is a remarkable showing for a man so constantly occupied with private and public business.

His scientific papers are written in a style peculiar to their author—lucid, convincing, never wearisome. "A singular felicity of induction guided all his researches, and by very small means he established very grand truths. The style and manner of his publications on electricity are almost as worthy of admiration as the doctrine they contain. He has endeavored to remove all mystery and obscurity from the subject. He has written equally for the uninitiated and for the philosopher; and he has rendered his details amusing and perspicuous, elegant as well as simple. Science appears, in his language, in a dress wonderfully decorous, best adapted to display her native loveliness. He has in no instance exhibited that false dignity by which philosophy is kept aloof from common applications; and he has sought rather to make her a useful inmate and servant in the common habitations of man, than to preserve her merely as an object of admiration in temples and palaces." *

Perhaps the most judicious estimate of Franklin's qualities as a man of letters is that by John Foster in the *Eclectic Review* for 1818.

"It is unnecessary to remark," he writes, "that Franklin was not so much a man of books as of affairs; but he was not the less for that a speculative man. Every concern became an intellectual subject to a mind so acutely and perpetually attentive to the relation of cause and effect. For enlargement of his sphere of speculation, his deficiency of literature, in the usual sense of the term, was excellently compensated by so wide an acquaintance with the world and with distinguished individuals of all ranks, professions and attainments. It may be, however, that a more bookish and contemplative employment of some portion of his life would have left one deficiency of his mental character less palpable. There appears

* Sir Humphrey Davy.

to have been but little in that character of the element of sublimity. We do not meet with many bright elevations of thought, or powerful, enchanting impulses of sentiment, or brilliant, transient glimpses of ideal worlds. Strong, independent, comprehensive, never remitting intelligence, proceeding on the plain ground of things, and acting in a manner always equal to, and never appearing at moments to surpass itself, constituted his mental power. In its operation it has no risings and fallings, no disturbance into eloquence or poetry, no cloudiness of smoke indeed, but no darting flames. A consequence of this perfect uniformity is, that all subjects treated appear to be on a level, the loftiest and most insignificant being commented on in the same unalterable strain of calm, plain sense, which brings all things to its own standard, insomuch that a great subject shall sometimes seem to become less while it is elucidated and less commanding while it is enforced. In discoursing of serious subjects, Franklin imposes gravity on the reader, but does not excite solemnity, and on grand ones he never displays or inspires enthusiasm."

Although his works fill ten stately volumes, Franklin never wrote a book for publication.

The "Autobiography" was intended solely for the pleasure of his intimate friends. The sayings of Poor Richard were prepared for his yearly Almanac, with purely utilitarian ends in view. His scientific discoveries were announced, with few exceptions, in letters to his friends, who printed them without his knowledge or consent.

His political papers appeared in the newspapers and reviews, in letters, or prefaces, and in occasional pamphlets. Some of his brightest and most finished essays were set up and printed by his own hand, as broadsides, on a little printing-press which he had in his apartments while Minister to France.

The matter-of-fact character of his early writings was largely due to his surroundings and to the people for whom he wrote. When at leisure in the society of cultivated people he soon yielded to their influence. His famous essay on the "Way to Wealth," for example, was written soon after his visit to Virginia and a somewhat intimate association with General Braddock and his staff. The first, and incomparably the best, part of his "Autobiography" was written at the time of his most intimate connection with English literary society and while visiting at the country home of the Bishop of St. Asaph. The witty Bagatelles were produced in the midst of a brilliant Parisian circle.

His contributions to science were the result of a period of voluntary seclusion and temporary respite from business cares which he had learned by his frugality and industry while printer and publisher.

After he had acquired literary fame, he made use of it to promote the welfare of his country. A French writer, describing, in 1872, the events of nearly a century before, said:

"The coming of the famous American to Paris caused a profound sensation. Everybody wanted to see the author of the 'Almanach du Bonhomme Richard;' his mind was compared to that of Cato, and his character to that of Socrates. Franklin knew full well how to take advantage of the impression which he had produced upon a nation so impressionable as were the French, always ready to place their lives and their wealth at the service of a noble principle, and, following the example of Lacretelle, he decided to serve as ambassador not to a court but to a free and generous people."

He was by instinct a scholar and by inclination an author. He loved books for themselves. He became a vegetarian at the age of sixteen that he might buy them.

Some one has called attention to his "remarkable affinity for superior people." His affinity for the best of books was also remarkable, and no one was ever more sensitive to their influence. In the "Autobiography" he mentions the books which, as a boy, he liked to read, and it is easy to trace the effects of each upon his subsequent life.

His literary style, though founded principally upon a thorough study of the *Spectator*, gave evidence at a very early day, of intimate acquaintance with Bunyan, Defoe, Plutarch, Rabelais and Xenophon. His philanthropic tendencies were shaped and strengthened by Cotton Mather's "Essays to do Good," and his administrative faculties by Defoe's "Essay upon Projects." Shaftesbury and Collins strongly influenced his theological opinions. Locke's "Essay on the Human Understanding" moulded his habits of thought, as did also the "Memorabilia" of Xenophon.

Franklin has been called the founder of modern utilitarianism, but it is unjust and ungenerous to place this estimate upon his character. He knew the world in which he lived, and the people for whom he wrote. His aim was to produce immediate and practical results. His precepts were written for the unthinking, the inexperienced and the selfish. Poor Richard was a kindergarten teacher.

In his advice in regard to the treatment of the aged, for example, he reminded his readers that they would themselves in their own last years need care and indulgence, but he also first appealed to motives the loftiest and tenderest. Whoever studies Franklin in a generous spirit, will find no lack of generous thought and principle.

Like Socrates, Franklin estimated the value of every action by its utility. Moral utility was to him, however, the highest test of value. He believed that the promotion of universal

happiness, by the prevention or mitigation of evil, was man's highest function. "He seems," says Weems, "to have been all eye, all ear, all touch, to every thing that affected human happiness," and he died with his eyes fixed upon "the picture of Him who came into the world to teach men to love one another. On his death-bed he often returned thanks to God for having so kindly cast his lot of life in the very time of all others when he would have chosen to live for the great purposes of usefulness and pleasure."

Is there in history a more touching memory than that of Franklin awaiting the coming of death, the venerable sage, the pride and glory of his own land, the admiration of Europe, making excuses for the moanings which were occasionally forced from him by the severity of his pains—afraid that he did not bear them as he ought, while he observed his grateful sense of the many blessings he had received from the Supreme Being, who had raised him from small and low beginnings to such high rank and consideration among men.

I have already said that nothing was further from his thoughts than to obtain for himself literary fame. He took no care of his own writings, and made no effort to secure the publication of them. And still, a century after his death, he stands prominently forth as the only great literary man of America in colonial days and in the first fifty years of the Republic.

No one who has held in his hand a copy of Franklin's edition of Cicero's "Cato Major" can doubt that the man who made it had the soul of an artist. No one who has read his tender and exquisitely graceful preface to this beautiful edition can question that he had the heart of a poet, and the touch of a master of letters.

When twenty-five he founded a great public library, the earliest in America, that others as well as he might enjoy the companionship of books.

Books were always in his mind and by his side. He compared his own life to a book. At the age of eighty-three he wrote:

"Hitherto this long life has been tolerably happy; so that, if I were allowed to live it over again, I should make no objection, only wishing for leave to do, what others do in a second edition of their works—correct some of my *errata*."

His "Autobiography," written in the same spirit, noted the "errata" in its author's career with true printer's interest, as if he were scanning a bundle of proof sheets. He did not conceal them, but marked them so that all could see, frankly confessed his errors, and did what he could in atonement.

Jefferson desired that his monument should declare that he was the author of the Declaration of Independence and the founder of a great university. Franklin, in his will, sought no higher title than that of *printer*. A maker of books he had been for three-quarters of a century, and a friend and lover of literature even longer. The epitaph, written by his own hand for his tomb, which can never become trite by repetition, is full of the spirit of the great printer.

"THE BODY
OF
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,
PRINTER,
(LIKE THE COVER OF AN OLD BOOK,
ITS CONTENTS TORN OUT,
AND STRIPT OF ITS LETTERING AND GILDING,)
LIES HERE FOOD FOR WORMS,
YET THE WORK ITSELF SHALL NOT BE LOST,
FOR IT WILL, AS HE BELIEVED, APPEAR ONCE MORE,
IN A NEW
AND MORE BEAUTIFUL EDITION,
CORRECTED AND AMENDED
BY
THE AUTHOR."

In introducing Dr. J. W. Holland, Mr. Williams said:

It is sometimes forgotten in Philadelphia, and it is never remembered in Boston, that while Franklin became a Bostonian without being consulted, he employed the first exercise of his mature judgment to become a Philadelphian, and remained so to the end of his days. It is a happy coincidence that in commemorating the scientific labors of the man who, like another Prometheus, stole from heaven the vital spark which has given light to man and life to modern science, this Society has selected one of the many representatives of science in this city which it owes to the attractions it offers for a career rather than to the opportunities it furnishes as a birthplace. Dr. J. W. Holland represents an institution which has given to him, as it had before to a distinguished predecessor, the field for displaying in the East a learning and skill attained and acquired in the West. Like Dr. Gross, he has added one more to those men of mark in medicine whose work began in Kentucky, but the knowledge of whose labors is bounded by no one State. In dealing with the scientific work of Franklin, the physician is as much at home as the electrician. His great discovery in the field of the latter was more conspicuous, illuminating the ignorance of ages by a single flash of lightning. His discoveries in hygiene were numerous, useful and remain to-day serviceable. I take pleasure in introducing to you Dr. J. W. Holland, of Jefferson Medical College, who speaks upon

The Scientific Work of Benjamin Franklin.

The scientific labors of Franklin were not limited to any particular period nor any special field. Various branches of natural philosophy, in almost every year of his middle life, were illuminated by his discoveries, inventions and speculations. As an editor and man of business, science occupied part of his leisure, and in later life, when engrossed with public affairs, he sighed for opportunity to follow these favorite pursuits.

In presenting a sketch of these varied and fruitful labors, chronological arrangement will not serve so well as one based upon their general character. Looked at in this way his principal works are seen to fall into a few groups such as labors in sanitary science, in the art of navigation, in meteorology, and in electricity. It will be readily conceded that in the limits allotted this subject, it would be vain to attempt an extended analysis of all the philosophical productions of his fertile genius. It is possible, however, to give some impression of their variety and utility.

The science of maintaining health is rightly regarded as of very modern growth and even now its importance though constantly insisted on by its votaries is far from being generally recognized. The sound judgment of Franklin led him to consider it as a weighty matter whether it involved smoky chimneys or the water supply of a great city. His sanitary labors pertain to the person, to the house, and to the city. About that very common disturbance of health usually called "catching a cold," many fallacies still linger though Franklin did some forcible writing to remove the popular errors. He perceivèd what doctors nowadays all recognize that while among the causes of acute catarrh, exposure to cold was one, the most

important was a predisposition due to impaired strength from any cause whatever. Too little exposure to fresh air inducing depressed vitality might thus figure as a cause. His essay on this topic with some alterations would make a good sanitary tract, even after the lapse of more than a century.

It was his constant habit to try to see all things little and great just as they are, and when he spoke of them to give a truthful report. When the time came for him to resort to spectacles to correct old sight, he found that the glass which served for society would not answer for reading. Naught that interested him was he content to look upon as if in a fog. But many things must be outlined dimly unless he carried two pairs of spectacles and changed them as the occasion demanded. To obviate this difficulty, he invented what is known as the bifocal or Franklin lens, the upper half of which was adjusted to distant objects and the lower for near view, as in reading. By changing the direction of vision through this one pair of glasses an elderly artist can see equally well the landscape one moment and his canvas the next. Franklin asserted that he understood French better by their help as they enabled him, while at table to see distinctly what he had on his plate and at the same time to note the expressive facial movements of persons who sat opposite. In the hundred years no change was made from the original form until recently. Now, instead of dividing the lens in equal halves by a horizontal line, two perfectly centred lenses of different sizes are cemented together. The larger, having two-thirds the size of the entire glass, is devoted to objects beyond arm's reach, and the smaller at the bottom suffices for reading. This invention must be considered as something better than a convenience; it takes rank with devices for maintaining health. When the imperfect eye makes frequent effort to see things without properly adjusted

glasses, in sensitive persons eye-fatigue may induce various reflex nervous symptoms.

To those allied departments of domestic hygiene, ventilation and warming, he was the first one to give anything like adequate heed. On many occasions he urged the need for ventilation to prevent that personal vitiation of air indoors which depresses the energies and causes stupor and dull headache. Mr. Small, a London surgeon, credits him with being the first who observed that respiration communicated to the air a quality resembling the mephitic gases of caves, and further, that a noxious character was imparted by the volatile effluvia of persons enclosed in rooms. Franklin attached considerable importance to the use of open chimneys for the extraction of the vitiated air by the upward draught. While in London he was consulted on the ventilation of the House of Commons and recommended that the personal atmosphere surrounding the members might be carried off direct by having outlets in a part of the benches on which they sat connected with exhaust flues. The merit of the suggestion is shown by the fact that a similar provision has been introduced into the new Johns Hopkins Hospital which embodies the most approved methods of sanitary construction. Connected with the benches in the waiting rooms, and beneath each bed in the wards are grates through which the personal atmosphere passes out to the draught of a chimney.

Inseparable from the requirement of ventilation and subservient to it is that of the heating arrangements. In this matter he made a great stride by the invention of the stove that bears his name. This stove was invented to economize fuel by regulating the air supply to it and by providing large metallic surfaces for warming the air of the room. In a hundred years, from Franklin's idea many shapes have been evolved,

all traceable to the original. His name is usually given the variety provided with open grates, but there can be no doubt that the original embodied also the principles of the now widely used "air-tight" stoves to which his directions are perfectly applicable. One of the advantages claimed for the stove was that it was a refuge from the nuisance of smoky chimneys. At that time the true principles of chimney construction had not been worked out so that a perfect chimney was the exception and open fire-places not an unmixed luxury. To beguile the tedium and discomfort of a seven weeks' voyage across the Atlantic, Franklin set down his observations and recommendations and gave them to a suffering world as his famous pamphlet on the "Causes and Cure of Smoky Chimneys." Having applied his accurate eye and judgment to these common-place things and having made scientific publications of mark concerning them, he had the satisfaction of knowing that by his plans for perfecting chimneys, for getting the most heat from fuel and for securing wholesome currents of air in close apartments, he had dispelled much ignorance and enhanced the sum of human comfort.

That Franklin was foremost in all public measures, for founding a hospital, advancing popular education, lighting and paving streets, and organizing fire companies, is generally appreciated, but it is not so widely known that he took steps in his will to improve the water supply of this city. Having noticed the tendency of well water in old cities to grow gradually unfit for use, he foresaw that in time a change to a better protected source would be necessary to the public health. In his last will he provided that at the end of a hundred years, if not done before, the corporation of this city should employ a bequest in bringing by pipes the water of Wissakickon creek to the town. After a hundred years, his beloved city is con-

fronted with the same difficulty in another shape. The wells having fulfilled his prophecy have been abolished and the waters of the Wissahickon many years ago brought into service have in turn come under suspicion. What an imperial gift, if some millionaire, emulous of Franklin's example, with far greater means, should see fit to dedicate his money to provide for the people a purer drinking water, when the unfitness of the present source shall be duly recognized!

Having made eight voyages across the Atlantic at a time when it took at least a month, he had opportunities for studying the art of navigation. What he saw joined to what he learned from experienced seamen and his own wide reading lead him to inferences that have helped to master the difficulties and perils of the sea. Although early Spanish navigators were aware of the existence of the Gulf stream, so little detailed knowledge was available that up to Franklin's time the currents of the Atlantic were looked upon as hindrances rather than helps to transatlantic commerce. Franklin noticed the higher temperature marking out the Gulf stream, took many thermometric observations, and made a chart of it with a view to guide navigators in the route between England and America. He first advised that systematic use be made of the trade-winds and the ocean currents, and showed how it could be done. From the Chinese he got an idea which he was the first to urge upon the western ship-owners. He worked out the crude hint to its best form—that of dividing a ship into separate chambers by water-tight partitions so that a leak in one would not affect the others. It was not until quite recent years that this device has been put in practice with the desired results. A demonstration of its utility was seen lately in the accident that happened to the steamer *City of Paris*. Even when two of her compartments were flooded, she bore

up for four days and a half, bringing her ship's company of more than a thousand souls safely into port.

The recorded experiences of ships during the last few years have fully established the efficacy of another notion of Franklin's. Thanks to his emphatic endorsement the previously known power of oil to still troubled waters is now generally employed to smooth the breaking waves when they threaten the safety of a vessel.

The occurrence of a north-east storm of unusual violence provoked those inquiries which led to his discovery of the backward course of storms and to a theory which had a marked influence on the development of meteorology. His explanation of the Aurora Borealis as a phenomenon of atmospheric electricity was at once accepted as adequate, though in its details it has since been modified to meet the demands of advancing knowledge.

In one of his charming letters to a lady correspondent he first made note of the remarkable variation in the absorptive power for the sun's heat shown by cloths of different colors. According to his suggestions, the principle has been applied to agriculture and to the clothing of armies. Under the fostering hand of the national government during this century there has been developed from his initial inquiry in navigation the admirable work of the hydrographic office. Its pilot charts are the lineal descendants of the one Franklin drew. It is not claiming too much to say that his observations on the north-east storm were the first noteworthy contribution to the science upon which is based the predictions of the weather bureau.

The present time has been called "the Age of Electricity." To estimate fairly the significance of Franklin's electrical researches in this day of the telephone, the dynamo-engines, the electric light, and the electric railway, it must be remem-

bered that one hundred and fifty years ago not only was there no telegraph, but the magnetic, chemical and motor powers of electricity were not even dreamt of. It was fifty years before Galvani published his account of the convulsions produced in a frog's leg by the contact of dissimilar metals. Volta was just five years old. To what is now an open book full of wonders which every school-boy can read without obscurity or hesitation, naught but the preface had appeared. That preface dates from three centuries before Christ, when Thales of Miletus drew attention to the curious property of attraction developed on rubbing amber. The Greeks explained this by the theory that friction evoked the animating soul of the amber which seized upon light particles near it. For nearly two thousand years there was no substantial addition to knowledge until Gilbert discovered that glass, sealing wax, sulphur, and other substances could also be electrified. Then fifty years elapsed before a rude machine was made from which vivid sparks could be drawn. After another fifty years the resemblance between these zigzag sparks and the lightning flash was commented on. The first chapter was fairly opened when the discovery of the Leyden jar enabled the experimenter to imprison the fiery spirit and perform many remarkable tricks with it. At this time Franklin had reached middle life and retired from business with an independent fortune. He gave his scientific enthusiasm a free rein with the Leyden jar and the frictional machine. With the aid of his Philadelphia collaborators many ingenious experiments were devised. Their joint study proved so fruitful that in the course of six years they advanced the science of frictional electricity more than the rest of the world had done in two thousand.

It was this chapter which, according to Goethe, had been handled better than any other in modern times. For illustra-

tion of an admirable scientific method, let us glance at the steps of Franklin's research. First, his attention was taken with the marvels of the rubbed glass tube. These were enhanced by the storage properties of the Leyden jar. With three friends who had the same infection, he formed a coterie for mutual suggestions and encouragement. They constructed their own machines and with them made new demonstrations of attraction and repulsion, and of the power of electricity to produce light, heat, mechanical violence, nervous shock, and even death. The brilliancy of these experiments depended mainly on Franklin's discovery that the electricity of the Leyden jar was stored up on the glass, and that by increasing the extent of excited surface the energy was proportionately multiplied. The power thus obtained made it appear highly probable that the difference between the spark and the lightning flash was one of degree. Having discovered the property of pointed conductors to cause a silent and harmless discharge he next charged an artificial thunder-cloud made of Leyden jars, and with a small pointed rod conducted away its energy without noise or violence. From the truth thus established, he deduced the conjecture that sharp metallic rods fixed at the highest point of buildings would draw away quietly the charge of an approaching thunder-storm. A similar contrivance brought the atmospheric electricity within the reach of his experiments, and its identity with frictional electricity was fully demonstrated. His conjectures put to the test gave to the service of humanity the lightning-rod, accounted the most brilliant application of science that had been known up to that time.

In a hundred years, but little has been added to what Franklin revealed concerning the electricity of friction. Volta's electrophorus with his condenser and Holtz' induction

machine are the only important additions to electrostatics that have since been made. The marvelous progress of this century in the adaptation of electricity as a useful agent are developments of chemical and magnetic electricity forms unknown until after Franklin's death. His apt and simple theory of an electric fluid, the excess or lack of which caused positive and negative action, held sway for so many years that to this day its nomenclature is retained in spite of defects revealed by recent advances in knowledge. The splendid results of investigations made in our time call for a broader conception which shall include Franklinism, Galvanism, and Faradism, with those manifestations of energy at a distance which seem to place electro-magnetic induction in the same category with light and other radiant forces.

But Franklin's fame as a philosopher who worked for the improvement of man's estate shall remain amid all the theoretical changes of the future. It shall remain because it rests upon the enduring truths he first laid bare; because it was builded with sound inductive methods; because it is guarded by the grateful memories of mankind. Cheerfully then let us commemorate the day of his death. It was the day when his intelligence should at last be released from "its muddy vesture," when, as he expressed it, he should be free to roam through some of the systems Herschel has explored, free to satisfy his curiosity concerning worlds he did not know.

In introducing Dr. Henry M. Baird, Mr. Williams said:

The connection of Franklin with France lay deeper than the accident of events or the needs of his native land. Of all our greater men in the last century or in

this, the expression and cast of his genius alone was Gallic. He shared with Voltaire the capacity for using the highest literary form to enlighten the humblest reader or confute the keenest partisan. In his journalism, he prefigured the homely familiarity and the familiar humor which is alike the might and the weakness, the strong tower and the open pitfall of the American newspaper in this century. But in all he wrote and in much that he did, he foreshadowed that apprehension and appreciation of form for wit's sake which yearly draws us as a nation nearer to the critical standards of France in art and in letters. The historian of France therefore approaches the diplomatic career of Franklin acquainted not only with the environment in which he discharged his great services, but aware of the men and the models, the method and habit of thought which profoundly influenced the conscious and unconscious development of Franklin from the man of business into the man of science, and from the man of science into the man of affairs. To the historian of the Huguenots, the chronicler of the great Cardinals, the deep and unsparing student of the causes which prepared in France the field in which Franklin won his last and closing triumphs, these triumphs have a meaning and interpretation lost on other men. I need not remind you that our next speaker ascends this platform with this special equipment for his work in treating of the diplomatic services of Franklin, and I feel equal honor and good fortune in introducing to you, as the last speaker of the evening, Dr. Henry M. Baird, of the University of the City of New York, who will speak upon

THE DIPLOMATIC SERVICES OF BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

I have been asked to address you on the subject of Dr. Franklin's diplomatic services—a department of activity in which our great compatriot, and the founder of this Society, conferred upon his country and upon humanity benefits not inferior to those by which, as a scientific discoverer, he brought the whole world into his debt.

In the address of welcome made to Benjamin Franklin, upon his return from his last mission to Europe, the Assembly of this Commonwealth, by the mouth of its Speaker, the Hon. John Bayard, greeted him with these words: "We are confident, sir, that we speak the sentiments of this whole country, when we say that your services in the public councils and negotiations have not only merited the thanks of the present generation, but will be recorded in the pages of history to your immortal honor." *

We are here, Mr. President, to set the seal of the concluding years of this nineteenth century to the fulfillment of the prophecy made over one hundred years ago, by the enthusiastic voice of Franklin's contemporaries.

The diplomatic services of Benjamin Franklin are naturally to be referred to two periods; and the dividing line is the outbreak of the American Revolution. In the first period, his efforts were directed towards England, and his aim was to obtain for his countrymen, as citizens of the great British empire, the acknowledgment of rights inalienably theirs by reason of their birth.

In the second period, the claims of the colonists of North America having been practically denied, the energies of his

* "The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin." Edited by John Bigelow (New York, 1887). ix, 248.

mind were turned in the direction of France, and his heroic and persistent exertions were put forth to secure, first, the recognition and help of that land, and then, with that help, the complete independence of the United States and their admission into the sisterhood of nations. Both departments of his activity, both fields of labor, elicited strenuous, concentrated, conscientious exercise of all his prodigious intellectual powers, and both were worthy of them. Yet viewing his diplomatic services as a whole, the latter part stands out prominent, as indeed the consummation of a life of singular utility to the public.

The English mission laid the foundation, broad and firm, of Franklin's fame as an able negotiator; his mission to the Continent reared on this abiding substructure a stately edifice adorned with imposing columns and entablature—in which, if I may be permitted to carry out the same figure, the aged philosopher's warm and enthusiastic attempt, in the name of humanity, to mitigate the horrors of all future wars, constituted the graceful cornice—a supreme and enduring tribute to the kindly instincts of his nature, of which it may truthfully be said: "*Finis coronat opus.*"

The richest and best fruits of man's intellectual and moral growth are found in the autumn of life, when the warm and mellowing rays of the sun have done their work, and nature gathers to itself the combined results of the entire year. Franklin's noble achievements as a diplomatist were accomplished in his later manhood and in his old age. He was past his fifty-first birthday when he sailed for England upon his first mission; he lacked less than six months of being four-score years old when he returned from his mission to France. The intervening twenty-eight years had been spent abroad in the service of his country, with the exception of two short intervals, the one of less than two years, the other of about eighteen months.

And what had he accomplished, when, with hair blanched by age, he at last returned to his native land and to the city of his choice, after so long an expatriation?

It is not with diplomacy, especially with services of the kind that Dr. Franklin rendered, as it is with the career of the military hero. If the great negotiator also has his triumphs, it is not always easy to lay the finger upon all the particular movements by means of which his bloodless victories are won. None the less do all his carefully laid but unobtrusive plans tend unerringly to the great result.

The first mission to England, though extending over not less than five years, is of subordinate interest to us now; because of the complete change that has since obliterated the political issues then regarded as momentous.

As agent for the colony of Pennsylvania, Dr. Franklin was sent to endeavor to obtain redress of wrongs sustained at the hands of the proprietaries. Subsequently appointed agent by other colonies—Massachusetts, Maryland, Georgia—his duty included vigilance respecting their interests also. The negotiation was long, tedious, dreary. We cannot tell how an obscure and unknown American, acting as a commissioner of distant provinces, would have fared at London in those times. Even Dr. Franklin, with all the great prestige of his scientific renown, did not find his position a bed of roses. The British government had evidently no very exalted opinion of the importance, present or prospective, of his gracious majesty's transatlantic plantations. Procrastination, proverbial vice of courts, had full sway. The months that Franklin was kept waiting for an answer to his petitions, were, doubtless, not altogether wasted by one who had mastered the rare art of putting the fragments, the very crumbs of time, to profitable use in the study of nature's hidden mysteries; and an abode in the

midst of the most learned and appreciative scholars England could boast, was not altogether destitute of attractions. Yet the diplomatic gain—the admission in particular of the right of the colonists to tax the lands of the proprietaries, soon to be proprietaries no more—seems trifling in view of the great events shortly to happen. And still the shrewd negotiator had gained something valuable. He had gained an insight into the cardinal doctrine of the current creed of the court. For had he not heard a minister of state, Lord Granville, propound the tenet that the king's instructions to his governors in America were the law of the land, and that the king himself must be regarded as "the legislator of the colonies?" This was a strange view to Dr. Franklin, who had always supposed that the right tc make the laws was vested in the provincial assemblies, with the king's approval. And he significantly tells us: "His lordship's conversation having a little alarmed me as to what might be the sentiments of the court concerning us, I wrote it down as soon as I returned to my lodgings."*

It was not many years before it was the turn of others to take alarm at the practical assertion of the same dangerous heresy.

Respecting Franklin's second period of residence in London as a negotiator, it is not too much to say, that it brings into the clearest relief the rare capacity of the great American statesman. True, he did not attain the goal of his hopes. He was not successful in bringing the crown and people of Great Britain to a better mind, in settling the relations of the colonies to the mother country upon a lasting basis of justice and equality; in obviating the necessity of that sundering of ties which Dr. Franklin himself was reluctant to admit to be

* Autobiography (continuation) in Works, i, 296.

unavoidable, and in averting the dreadful resort to war between men of the same blood. But he did succeed in the next best thing, for he brought into the clear light of God's sunshine the righteousness of the struggle that was forced upon the colonies, by demonstrating the impossibility of obtaining redress for their wrongs from an obstinate king, from an unreasonable and prejudiced parliament, from a people that because they inhabited the mother country had fallen into the strange mistake of imagining themselves to be not subjects but governors.* For, as Dr. Franklin wrote to Lord Kames, "every man in England seems to consider himself as *a piece of a sovereign* over America; seems to jostle himself into the throne with the king and talks of *our subjects in the colonies*." †

Two scenes of dramatic interest illustrate this mission—both almost too familiar to students of history to need more than a passing notice, both, however, too characteristic and too essential to a clear understanding of the marked personality of the man who was their hero, to be left altogether without mention. The first of these is that remarkable examination before the House of Commons, so often described, so often the subject of unconcealed wonder on the part of historical writers, when for hours Dr. Franklin answered the various questions addressed to him both by friends and by political opponents, with a readiness, a calmness, an aptness, that have rarely been equaled, perhaps never excelled. While it seems too much to say that his replies to the interrogatories of his friends were altogether unpremeditated, the admirable promptness and skill with which he met the inquiries sprung upon him by adversaries, afford conclusive evidence of the breadth of his information upon American topics, and, not less, of the

* Works, iii, 486, 487.

† *Ib.*, iv, 2, 3.

singular equipoise of a mind so nicely balanced as to respond instantly to the demands of the moment, yet so firmly settled as to be proof against every attempt to disturb or disconcert.

If this famous episode was well calculated to exalt Dr. Franklin to the highest pinnacle of political reputation as yet attained by any American subject of the king of England, it scarcely surpassed in interest another occasion of the same eventful period.

It was in February, 1766, that Dr. Franklin appeared before the Commons to submit to the long but respectful examination of which I have just spoken. It was nearly eight years later (in January, 1774) that the venerable sage, the man whom the world of letters and the world of science delighted to honor, was subjected, in the presence of the Privy Council, to an attack as scurrilous as it was indecent. There is no need that I rehearse the familiar tale of the Hutchinson Letters and the storm their publication aroused. That Dr. Franklin's part in the transaction was fully justifiable, can scarcely fail, I think, to be the unanimous verdict of impartial men. But the fury of the party whose secrets were unmasked so unexpectedly, can scarcely be imagined. Of that fury the scandalous occurrence in the Cockpit of Westminster (on the 29th of January, 1774) was the direct and disgraceful consequence. The government's very purpose in summoning Dr. Franklin was to insult him; and had it been in the power of malice to affix ignominy to a great and virtuous man, the vituperative address of the solicitor-general, Mr. Wedderburn, might have compassed that end. As it was, during the whole time that this unseemly flood of abuse was poured upon his devoted head, Dr. Franklin, to use the account of an eye-witness (Dr. Bancroft), "stood conspicuously erect, without the smallest movement of any part of his body. The muscles of his face had

been previously composed, so as to afford a placid, tranquil expression of countenance, and he did not suffer the slightest alteration of it to appear during the continuance of the speech, in which he was so harshly and improperly treated." *

A man conscious of the integrity of his purpose and the innocence of his actions can well afford to wait for vindication. And Dr. Franklin had not very long to wait. Not quite a year had elapsed—it was Wednesday, the 1st of February, 1775—when Lord Sandwich, in opposing in the Upper House the conciliatory measure introduced by the Earl of Chatham, seeing Dr. Franklin a few feet distant leaning upon the bar, went out of his way to express his belief that the plan under consideration was not that of any British peer, but of a person whom he saw before him, one of the bitterest and most mischievous enemies the country had ever had. In reply to whom Lord Chatham, not content with accepting the sole responsibility for the authorship of the project, proceeded to eulogize the great philosopher in these memorable words: "I make no scruple to declare that, were I the first minister of this country, and had I the care of settling this momentous business, I should not be ashamed of publicly calling to my assistance a person so perfectly acquainted with the whole of American affairs as the gentleman alluded to, and so injuriously reflected on; one whom all Europe holds in high estimation for his knowledge and wisdom, and ranks with our Boyles and Newtons; who is an honor, not to the English nation only, but to human nature!"

"I found it harder," modestly remarks Dr. Franklin in reporting the incident, "I found it harder to stand this extravagant compliment than the preceding equally extravagant abuse, but

* Works, v, 311.

kept as well as I could an unconcerned countenance, as not conceiving it to relate to me." *

And what shall I say of the importance of the services of Benjamin Franklin at the court of Versailles?

His good American friends had contented themselves with a brief enjoyment of his society at home. Little more than a year after his return from London, they voted, in Congress assembled, his dispatch to Europe, this time to France, showing scant consideration for his three-score years and ten, or for any natural desire he might have for a longer furlough from the diplomatic service. Barely had he, as a representative of Pennsylvania, affixed his name to the Declaration of Independence, before he was chosen to discharge his new and responsible functions. He reached Nantes early in December, 1776. Before Christmas he was in Paris.

He came at a critical moment. It cannot be affirmed that, without the help of France, the thirteen American colonies would not ultimately have achieved their great purpose. There is much in a courage that will admit into its vocabulary no such word as failure. Stout hearts convinced of the righteousness of the cause for which they battle, possess a great reserve of power. Unflinching resolve has learned the secret of enlisting time and opportunity as allies, and when most prostrate rises, with Heaven's help, to renew a strife which in the end must be crowned with victory.

But the American contest would have been longer, more painful, more enduring in the injuries inflicted, had it not been for the kindly intervention of France. And that intervention Benjamin Franklin secured. Humanly speaking, there was no one else that could have secured it. He was the foremost American of his time; in fact, he was the only

* Works, v, 498.

American that could claim a world-wide reputation. Even Washington was little known in Europe. Younger than Franklin by twenty-six years, he had as yet accomplished little to bring to the notice of foreigners those transcendant qualities, that commanding personal character, which years of arduous war amid trials, discouragement, and even occasional defeat, were to put to the proof. But Franklin, the man of science, the brilliant discoverer in a new and attractive realm of investigation, was known by all. His name was upon all lips. The very fact that he had come to France to advocate the cause of the new American republic conciliated for that cause the favor of great and small. And with the favor came a conviction that the side Franklin espoused would be certain to win. For, changing somewhat Turgot's celebrated line, was it not self-evident that the hand that "snatched the thunderbolt from heaven" would prove competent to wrest "the sceptre from tyrants?" Thus it came to pass that soon, according to M. Lacretelle, "no one any longer conceived it possible to refuse fleets and an army to the countrymen of Franklin."* Or, as M. Mignet, most terse and philosophical of modern French historians, has put it, "The sight of Franklin, the severe simplicity of his dress, the refined kindliness of his manners, the alluring spell of his wit, his venerable appearance, his modest assurance, and his resplendent fame, brought the American cause altogether into fashion."†

But it was not solely, nor chiefly, the reputation already gained by Dr. Franklin, that made his mission to France so productive of good to his native land. There was a wide field for the exercise of his ingenuity, for the display of his shrewd

* "Histoire de la France pendant le dix-huitième siècle," v, 86.

† "Vie de Franklin, Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques de l'Institut de France," vii (1850), 396.

common sense, and of both dexterity and tact, in those dark days when nothing reached Europe but reports of losses, retreats, disasters to the patriots. Money was to be obtained, and that from the coffers of a monarch himself well-nigh bankrupt. A great state must be induced to enter the strife upon the seas with the most formidable of maritime powers. A friendly shelter must be found in hospitable ports for American vessels that scoured the shores of Great Britain and brought in the prizes taken to be condemned and sold.

With the joyful news of the surrender of General Burgoyne came the first rays of sunshine, presage of the complete dispersion of the thick clouds hitherto enveloping the political skies. Then it was that the king of France definitely consented to enter upon a treaty of alliance with the United States. That was indeed, as M. Guizot justly styles it, "a triumph of Franklin's diplomatic ability."* Henceforth, if the great American envoy's labors did not diminish, if instead they rather increased as the slow years of the contest dragged along, at least the firm conviction of approaching triumph made tolerable even that enormous load of responsibility which rested upon his shoulders. Others, it is true, were associated with him, at the Hague, in Madrid, and elsewhere—John Adams, John Jay, and others, whose services are deserving of everlasting remembrance. They, too, displayed true patriotism, whole-souled devotion to the cause of liberty, and rare skill in negotiation. They might not have enjoyed the opportunities for training in the school of diplomacy which had fallen to the lot of the British envoys with whom they were called upon to deal, but they proved themselves adepts in the science of persuasion and generally discomfited their rivals. As Dr. Franklin somewhat quaintly states it, not without a tinge of

* "Histoire de France," v, 346.

raillery, when writing to his English correspondent, William Strahan, once more his friend, after the conclusion of the war: "Your contempt of our understandings, in comparison with your own, appeared to be not much better founded than that of our courage, if we may judge by this circumstance, that, in whatever court of Europe, a Yankee negotiator appeared, the wise British minister was routed, put in a passion, picked a quarrel with your friends, and was sent home with a flea in his ear."* And if good Jonathan Shipley, Bishop of St. Asaph, had primary reference to the ability of Franklin himself in dealing with the French and English ministers, the remark held good also of his worthy associates: "The event has shown that, in their own arts, you were not inferior to the ablest of them."†

Yet, while others were associated with him in the honorable work, and right nobly discharged their part, it was after all, Dr. Franklin that was chiefly looked to to represent the United States in Europe entire, as it was he alone that could sustain the credit of the country when Congress in its desperation was issuing drafts which it provided the envoys with no means of honoring, and when the advances of money imperatively needed for the maintenance of the American cause must be wrung by judicious insistance from a government, not so much reluctant, as unable to meet all the demands upon its purse made by its impecunious ally.

At last perseverance met with its reward. The king of England was compelled to acknowledge the autonomy of his revolted colonies, and, on the 30th of November, 1782, in conjunction with John Adams, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, Dr. Franklin signed the provisional articles. Ten months later, he

* Letter from Passy, 19 August, 1784, Works, ix, 53.

† Letter from Twyford, 27 November, 1784, Works, ix, 280.

was associated with Adams and Jay in concluding the definitive treaty.

To the consummation of the hopes of all patriotic Americans, the wise efforts of Franklin and his fellow-diplomatists had contributed as truly, perhaps as substantially, as had the martial exploits of Washington and his companions in arms. And it is as honorable to the wisdom as it is to the reverent spirit of those great men, that both Franklin and Washington ascribed their success to the favor of God who is the friend and avenger of the oppressed. I quoted, a moment ago, the somewhat boastful terms in which Dr. Franklin was pleased to describe to William Strahan the triumphs of American diplomacy at European courts. I must be permitted here to reproduce these sentences by which he next proceeds to qualify what might well otherwise be viewed as too arrogant a claim. "But, after all, my dear friend," he says, "do not imagine that I am vain enough to ascribe our success to any superiority in any of those points. I am too well acquainted with all the springs and levers of our machine, not to see that our human means were unequal to our undertaking, and that, if it had not been for the justice of our cause and the consequent interposition of Providence, in which we had faith, we must have been ruined. If I had ever before been an atheist, I should now have been convinced of the being and government of a Deity! It is He who abases the proud and favors the humble. May we never forget His goodness to us, and may our future conduct manifest our gratitude." *

It cannot but be regarded as an interesting circumstance, that Dr. Franklin's last diplomatic service should have been rendered in the interest of our common humanity; that in the treaty with Prussia, which it was his last official duty to sign

* Works, ix, 53.

on the eve of his departure from Paris, were embodied those philanthropic provisions that are destined, we hope, to mark the era of a higher and purer civilization.

Much as Dr. Franklin had had to do with the prosecution of war, forced thereto by the circumstances of the hour, he was preëminently a man of peace. "I am of opinion," he once wrote to the banker, Le Grand, "I am of opinion that there never was a bad peace, nor a good war." * He hoped great things from the spread of intelligence and especially of mutual forbearance. Hence he rejoiced when Louis XVI, by his edict of toleration (1787), took the first step toward undoing the mischief wrought by Louis XIV's gigantic blunder in revoking the Edict of Nantes. "The *arrêt* in favor of the *non catholiques*," he wrote from Philadelphia, "gives great pleasure here, not only from its present advantages, but as it is a good step towards general toleration, and to the abolishing, in time, all party spirit among Christians, and the mischiefs that have so long attended it. Thank God, the world is growing wiser and wiser, and as by degrees men are convinced of the folly of wars for religion, for dominion or for commerce, they will be happier and happier." †

Meanwhile, as the prospect of the entire abolition of war was yet very dim and shadowy, Dr. Franklin regarded it an end well worth laboring for to reduce as much as possible the attendant horrors. Two of these—*privateering* and the *cruel treatment of prisoners of war*—he set himself to remove.

He had written frequently and decidedly in condemnation of privateering, which he stigmatized as a remnant of the ancient piracy, and argued that though accidentally beneficial to particular persons, it was far from profitable to the nation

* Works, ix, 298.

Letter to M. Le Veillard, Philadelphia, 8 June, 1788. Works, ix, 481.

that authorized it. It was a lottery in which some might draw prizes, but the whole expense exceeded by much the aggregate of individual gains. Besides, in addition to the national loss of so many men during the time they have been engaged in robbing, the agents in the nefarious work become unfit for any sober business after a peace, and "serve only to increase the number of highwaymen and housebreakers." The financial disaster that sooner or later overtakes even the most prosperous of those taking part in it, Franklin regarded as "a just punishment for their having wantonly and unfeelingly ruined many honest, innocent traders and their families, whose subsistence was employed in serving the common interests of mankind."*

In accordance with these humane views, Dr. Franklin desired to insert in the treaty of peace with Great Britain an article abolishing privateering in all future wars. To this end he drew up a proposal, which he enclosed to his old friend, Richard Oswald, the British commissioner, shortly after they had signed the "provisional articles." In the accompanying letter he wrote: "I send you also another paper which I once read to you separately. It contains a proposition for improving the law of nations, by prohibiting the plundering of unarmed and usefully employed people. I rather *wish* than *expect* that it will be adopted. But I think it may be offered with a better grace by a country that is likely to suffer least and gain most by continuing the ancient practice, which is our case, as the American ships, laden only with the gross productions of the earth, cannot be so valuable as yours, filled with sugars or manufactures. It has not yet been considered by my colleagues, but if you should think or find that it might be

*Propositions relative to privateering communicated to Mr. Oswald, Passy, 14 January, 1783, Works, viii, 246. See also, *ib.*, ix, 88, 89.

acceptable on your side, I would try to get it inserted in the general treaty. *I think it will do honor to the nations that establish it.*" *

Dr. Franklin was right, but, finding no favor with the government of Great Britain, the proposal was declined. Its author, however, did not despair. A few years later he had the satisfaction of being able to write to M. Leroy: "I rejoice to hear that the difference between the emperor and your country [France] is accommodated, for I love peace. You will see in the treaty we have made with Prussia some marks of my endeavors to lessen the calamities of future wars." Accordingly we find near the close of that document, signed as I have said by Dr. Franklin, as one of the three commissioners appointed by Congress, just before his return, an article—it is the twenty-third—almost identical in its phraseology with that which he had, two years before, offered to Mr. Oswald for consideration. In it occur these memorable words: "And all merchant and trading vessels employed in exchanging the products of different places and thereby rendering the necessaries, conveniences and comforts of human life more easy to be obtained and more general, shall be allowed to pass free and unmolested; and neither of the contracting powers shall grant or issue any commissions to any private armed vessels, empowering them to take or destroy such trading vessels or interrupt such commerce." †

Not only so, but, in a succeeding article, the attempt is made further to mitigate the sufferings entailed by war by provisions of the most kindly character, stipulating in great detail what shall be the treatment of prisoners. They shall not be sent

* Works, viii, 245.

† Text in "Treaties and Conventions concluded between the United States of America and other powers since July 4, 1776" (Washington, 1889), 905, 906.

to distant and inclement countries, to the East Indies or to any other parts of Asia or Africa, nor confined in dangerous prison-ships or prisons, nor put into irons, nor bound, nor otherwise restrained in the use of their limbs. Both officers and common soldiers shall be furnished with daily rations equal in quality and quantity to the rations given to soldiers and officers of the same rank in the army of the captors; and their quarters and barracks shall be not less roomy and comfortable than those enjoyed by the troops of the party in whose power they are.

Still further to invest these new improvements in international jurisprudence with all possible sanctity, the following clear statement is made, every line of which bears the marks of Dr. Franklin's clear and judicious pen: "And it is declared, that neither the pretense that war dissolves all treaties, nor any other whatever, shall be considered as annulling or suspending this and the next preceding article; but, on the contrary, that the state of war is precisely that for which they are provided, and during which they are to be as sacredly observed as the most acknowledged articles in the law of nature or nations."*

This was an appropriate ending of Dr. Franklin's diplomatic services, a real gain for humanity achieved by a philosopher in whose eyes no acquisition, either of his own or of others, was so precious as that by means of which the common store of comfort and happiness was enhanced. Again it had been the great fame of the founder of this Society that insured him success in the field of international negotiation. For with such a man the States and monarchs of the Old World deemed it an honor to treat. The ambassador of Gustavus III, of Sweden, was not only directed to make advances for a treaty

* Treaties and Conventions, 906.

with the United States—Sweden being the first power in Europe which voluntarily offered its friendship without being solicited—but was charged to tell Dr. Franklin that the king had so great esteem for him that it would be a particular satisfaction to his majesty to have such a transaction with him. Dr. Franklin is himself our informant, nor does he conceal the pardonable gratification which he felt at hearing the flattering assurance, adding: "I have perhaps some vanity in repeating this; but I think, too, that it is right that Congress should know it, and judge if any use may be made of the reputation of a citizen for the public service." *

The diplomatic career of Dr. Franklin closes with the year 1785, when he went home not indeed to enjoy rest, as he had fondly hoped, but to a change of scene and of employment. And here, in the city of his adoption, death overtook him rich in years, in honors, and, what he prized more, in the memory of valuable benefits conferred upon his country and upon mankind. Such men are few in any age; their number is not great in all the combined centuries that together make up the short life of our race upon this planet.

It is only meet that we should cherish their names with respect, and gratefully hand down to posterity the story of their honorable and meritorious deeds.

Upon the close of the last speech, Mr. Williams said;

I am instructed by the Committee, which I represent in closing this commemoration, publicly to express the appreciation of the Society for the attendance of its

* Franklin to Secretary Livingston, Passy, 25 June, 1782, Works, viii, 109.

guests and for the words of its invited speakers. A hundred years ago, the honor and commemoration of Franklin at the end of a century was confidently expected by our predecessors, whose example we follow to-night with this tribute in memory of his death. With increasing confidence, with enlarging hope for the future, in abiding certainty that whatever another century may bring it can add only increasing fame to his memory, we commit our discharge of this duty to our successors a century hence, in the complete and comfortable assurance, that their commemoration, like our own, will find assembled again the descendants of Franklin, this Society, its members, its invited guests, and eloquent voices to commemorate his memory and again record his fame.

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Obituary Notice of Daniel Raynes Goodwin, D.D., LL.D.

By J. Vaughan Merrick.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 7, 1890.)

It is impossible within the limited compass of a memoir like this, to present a complete picture of the life and character of a man so pure, so strong. so gifted, so impressive in his influence upon the world in which he lived, as those of the subject of this sketch.

Many of the circumstances which moulded his earlier years have sunk into oblivion, and through the passing away of his contemporaries cannot be revived. We must be content therefore to gather up the fragments which remain, and to fill out the outlines with the more abundant records of later years.

Daniel Raynes Goodwin was born, April 12, 1811, in North Berwick, Maine. His father, Samuel Goodwin, was a farmer who also owned and worked two mills at the Falls of Negutaquis, on the outskirts of the town. He was a sensible and good man, who, after rearing a family of nine children, died in 1855 at the age of ninety-two. His mother was Anna Gerrish, who survived her husband about one year. On both sides Mr. Goodwin inherited sterling qualities; on the father's side had been men of mark for integrity, courage and patriotism, and on the maternal side, college-bred men for generations. The homestead was so situated as to present meagre advantages for school education. The nearest neighbor lived nearly a mile distant, and the nearest school-house, which was opened only about ten weeks each year, was still farther off. In those days, in New England, sparsely settled and poor, except in the cities and towns, school advantages were few, and were pursued under many drawbacks and hardships. Wherever possible they were supplemented by home teaching. Fortunately in this case, the eldest sister performed this office during the winter evenings. When fifteen years of age, he was sent to the Academy at South Berwick, and later on to Limerick Academy. In 1828, then

seventeen years old, he entered Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, Me., and notwithstanding his limited preparation, he speedily took and maintained throughout his college course, the first place for scholarship, as well as for natural powers. It is stated by Rev. Dr. John Lord, one of his schoolmates at Berwick Academy, that his class were all older than himself, yet that he at once took the lead, and being ahead of his teacher in classics, really taught himself Greek and Latin. He adds that he (Mr. G.) had great precocity of talent in every study to which his attention was turned, and was regarded as a sort of intellectual prodigy by teachers and scholars alike. He graduated at the head of his class at Bowdoin, in 1832, and was appointed master of the Academy at Hallowell, Me.; soon after which, in 1834, he became a member of the Theological Seminary at Andover. In 1835, he was called from Andover to Bowdoin, his Alma Mater, as tutor under the late Henry W. Longfellow, professor of modern languages. Soon after assuming the duties of this position he was elected to succeed that eminent man, who had resigned the chair. Some faint conception of his abilities and attainments can be drawn from the fact, that such a choice should have fallen upon a man of only twenty-four years of age. Diffident of his own powers, however, and resolved to fit himself more thoroughly for his post, he at once proceeded to Europe and spent nearly two years, studying the structure of the language and the literature of Spain, France, Italy and Germany, and maturing his knowledge of philology, which then and always was with him a favorite study, and one in which his intellectual powers were strengthened and polished. In 1837, he returned and became an active member of the Faculty of Bowdoin. It is the testimony of Mr. Nehemiah Cleaveland, in his history of that institution, that "As a teacher and governor, he was assiduous, fearless and most efficient, inculcating by example as well as precept a liberal culture. Possessing a mind singularly active, clear and comprehensive, with great acumen and power of analysis, it is not strange that metaphysical and moral science largely attracted his regard." Nor were his sympathies and abilities confined in their exercise to his merely professional affairs. It is the remark of Prof. Egbert C. Smyth, the son of a brother professor, who lived near and was a boyish admirer of Prof. Goodwin, that the two colleagues were associated in many objects of public concern outside of college duties; and the same authority mentions his admirable conversational powers, the memory so unfailing and inexhaustible in its resources, the crystal clearness of his thought, the aptness of his words, his cheerful and spirited manner. He speaks also of the engaging gifts of his wife (Mary Randall, daughter of Samuel and Hannah Merrick) to whom he had been married in January, 1838. With her, his delightful home had been established; and from it the two professors would "habitually walk together to their eleven o'clock recitations; or from time to time plant together elms and maples which with their own hands had been dug up in the forests." In this charming home, a perpetual fountain of knowledge and life, Prof. and Mrs. Goodwin lived for many years, subsequently transferring it to

another house in Brunswick ; rearing there a family of children, the oldest of whom, Anna Harriet, now the wife of Benjamin Vaughan, of Cambridge, was born in November, 1838. Subsequently were born three daughters: Julia, and Lucy, who died in infancy, and Mary, now the widow of the late Dr. William Canfield Spencer, U. S. A. (grandson of the late Chief Justice Spencer, of New York), and two sons: Henry, who died in 1861, and Harold, at present an attorney-at-law, residing in Philadelphia.

Another witness of this home life at Bowdoin describes it as "simple, unconventional, orderly, refined, and Christian."

Mr. Goodwin, besides his professorship at Bowdoin, held, for fifteen years, the post of Librarian to the College; doubtless a most congenial office, bringing him into close companionship with the books he loved so well; and to the College students, who profited by his learning, and by his enlightened power of guidance in their reading and research, offering a priceless boon. Nor were the students the only ones who benefited by his presence in this capacity. He was making at this time a strong mark in literature by contributions to various reviews, articles upon subjects germane to his chair, or upon the results of his studies in philology and history. That these labors were not exhausting, was due to his power of intense and active exercise of mind without special effort. To his trained powers such writings were recreation.

The play of his fancy, the lucidity of his style, and the fullness of his knowledge, which were displayed in these and subsequent papers (a list of which is appended), make one regret that, from the pressure of other avocations, he could not contribute to literature more extensive works. One of his contemporaries in Berwick Academy, who followed his subsequent career with the deepest interest, and is well qualified to express an opinion on such a subject, says that if he had devoted his attention to philosophical and metaphysical inquiries he would probably have attained a fame unexcelled, perhaps unequaled, by any living scholar.

The services he rendered in Brunswick to the public schools were conspicuous. Before the introduction of the graded system in the town, he was a member of the School Board; and by his efforts the strong opposition to the change from the old methods, involving legal embarrassments, as well as a modification of public opinion, was in great measure overcome. The contest was carried to the Supreme Court, and proving successful there, the issue resulted in great advantage to public education in the State. One who is familiar with this period of his life speaks in terms of hearty admiration of "his generous and self-sacrificing labors in this cause."

During his residence at Brunswick, it was the custom of the members of the Faculty to sally out when a disturbance among the students occurred, and personally to arrest offenders. On one of these occasions, Prof. Goodwin was severely injured by a student who threw oil of vitriol into his face, occasioning great suffering, and marking him for life;

although, happily, he escaped without permanent injury to his sight. This was not the result of any special animosity against him, but the dealing of a blow to the Faculty as a body, against whom the resentment of the attacked students was aimed. The result of this untoward event was an abandonment of the old, undignified method of quelling disturbances, as well as a widespread sympathy for the sufferer, and indignation against the offender.

His connection with the Protestant Episcopal Church, of which he afterwards became so distinguished a member, began during this period of his life. He was confirmed in 1842, at Gardiner, Me.; and this circumstance, coupled with his prominent position in the college at Brunswick, was probably one of the considerations which induced Bishop Henshaw, at that time acting Bishop of Maine, to send there, in 1843, a missionary to establish a church. Mr. Goodwin at once took up the duty assigned him of aiding this missionary in forming a nucleus for a parish; although, in so doing, he placed himself in apparent antagonism to other religious influences then prominent in the college, and ran counter to the traditions of the place, as well as to correspondingly strong convictions of at least some of his colleagues. They feared the effect upon the college, of introducing the services of a communion, which was at that time the object of considerable prejudice in the State, and, indeed, in New England. Mr. Goodwin's character and influence, however, made his advocacy of the new enterprise a tower of strength; for he was universally loved and respected by Faculty and students. No event of his life displays more clearly the fortitude, the calm and steady principle with which he gave himself to the support of an unpopular movement, and of what seemed at the time a forlorn hope; and these characteristics are visible throughout his life. In 1847, he was ordained Deacon, and in the following year a Priest of the Church.

At length his career at Bowdoin closed, when, in 1853, he was called to become President of Trinity College, at Hartford; acting, also, as one of the Professors, at first, that of Modern Languages, and, subsequently, of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy.

His presidency occurred during a difficult crisis in the affairs of the college, the history of which will, perhaps, be hereafter produced. It may, however, be said, that his influence was successfully exerted to raise the standard of its requirements and of its discipline, and to promote clear and honest work among its students.

One who was under him in those days (Bishop Niles), referring to the singular majesty of his character and his power of interesting his pupils, says that "he has known bright but indolent men look forward with eagerness to the President's recitation hour, in Butler's Analogy and Whately's Logic; from which far more was learned than by the study of formal logic under any other man." There was, however, as we are told by the same authority, another side of his character, not less strongly marked, which gave a brilliant lustre to his memory; that "mirthfulness

and general enjoyment of what was really bright and clever in literature, in persons, in social and domestic life," which made him, in his own home, the centre of a group of young people, delighting himself and them with witty things of all kinds.

With such characteristics, it is easy to believe, that when called to a more prominent position, he carried with him the general and earnest regrets of Faculty and students at the severance of the tie. While still at Hartford, he was in 1855 honored by his Alma Mater with the degree of D.D.

In 1860, he was elected by the Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania to be Provost of that Institution, and immediately moved to Philadelphia, in which city, in West Philadelphia, he resided till his death. The University was at that time housed at Ninth and Chestnut streets, now the site of the post-office, and although venerable in age, was but the germ of its present self. As yet it had only the Collegiate, Medical and Law Department and a very limited staff of professors. Here also his duties were of a mixed character, including besides the government of the College, a professorship (Intellectual and Moral Philosophy) which brought him into close contact with the students.

Immediately prior to his election, the University had been for some months subsequent to the resignation of Provost Vethake, in temporary charge of the Vice-Provost, the late Prof. John F. Frazer.

It had, however, been among the traditions of the University until Provost Vethake's incumbency, that it should be in charge of a clergyman, and the Trustees, in pursuance of this policy, selected Dr. Goodwin as his successor.

His inaugural address marked a new era in the history of the University, and he at once assumed a commanding position in the Faculty and among the undergraduates. The favorable impression then produced, was confirmed and strengthened, as the daily intercourse of College life showed him to be at once rigorous in the performance of his duty and in exacting the same qualities from the young men under his charge, while they found him kind and genial upon personal contact within and without the College walls.

When, in the judgment of the Trustees, it became expedient to enlarge the scope of instruction, by adding to the liberal and classical courses, a scientific department, Dr. Goodwin feared that the change would not prove successful under the conditions then existing; and this feeling, it is supposed, influenced him in retiring from his office in 1868, when called upon to become Dean of the Philadelphia Divinity School.

It is the testimony of all who were conversant with the history of the Institution during his eight years' incumbency, that he produced a lasting and most valuable impression upon the characters of the students, leading them to habits of concentration of mind and of exactness of expression, the influence of which has been of the highest value in their subsequent career.

Upon his retirement the University testified its sense of his abilities and learning, by conferring the honorary degree of LL.D.

In 1862, Doctor Goodwin became Professor of Apologetics in the Philadelphia Divinity School, which was organized that year. The title of this chair was changed to Systematic Divinity, in 1865, and so remained, he holding the office till his death. In 1868, upon leaving the University of Pennsylvania, he was made Dean of the Divinity School and retained that position till 1883, when advancing years and somewhat impaired health, coupled with the removal of the Institution to a distance from his home, compelled his withdrawal. For these duties he was preëminently fitted.

A record of the events of his life would be most incomplete, without particular mention of his labors in the Church of his love, rendered especially in her councils, both Diocesan and General. Except in one instance, St. Gabriel's, Windsor, Ct., where he remained some three or four years, he never assumed a permanent Rectorship, but was, at intervals, temporarily (sometimes for months together) in charge of parishes. This fact, and his long connection with educational interests, together with his great ecclesiastical learning and power as a debater, were undoubtedly prime factors in making him, for so long a period, a leader in the governing bodies of the Church. As early as 1853, he was sent by the Diocese of Maine to the Triennial General Convention meeting that year. From Pennsylvania he was sent in 1862, to the first Convention held after his removal to that Diocese, and continuously thereafter until that of 1889, the last one previous to his decease; thus being a member of that august assembly for ten successive sessions. At the same time he was a member of every Annual Diocesan Convention for thirty years. He promptly attained and kept throughout this period in both, a commanding position and leadership in that school of Churchmanship to which his sympathies tended (the Low Church or Evangelical party). And apart from this, his manifest qualifications for the post, caused his election or appointment in both bodies on the "Committee on Canons," and for many years past, to the chairmanship thereof. As this Committee shapes all legislation, and suppresses a multitude of proposals for revision or change, its chairmanship demands not only great learning and clearness of conception, with aptitude in debate, but also great conservatism. All these qualifications found their realization in Dr. Goodwin. Independently of the duties arising out of these positions, it is probable that few, if any, important measures brought forward in either House, failed to receive his close attention and criticism. Indeed, he suffered no resolution presented to the House to pass, without a close analysis of its phraseology and of its possible results. His support or opposition was always of weight, and in the Convention of the Diocese it was apt to be decisive.

His influence in the Diocese was further conspicuously shown by his long service as Chairman of the Standing Committee, a body which acts as constitutional advisor of the Bishop, and, in his absence, as a substitute, so far as concerns his administrative powers.

To attempt an analysis of the character of so remarkable a man, is a

task peculiarly difficult; his qualities were of so varied a nature, and presented strength in such apparently opposite directions. Irradiating his whole life, was the power of Christian faith. This was, undoubtedly, its dominating influence, the keynote of his nature. Gentle and courteous to a high degree, sympathizing and consolatory to those who were suffering from trial and loss, a lover of children, his heart was womanly in its tenderness. But in the defense of right, in the attack upon vice, in the public debate upon policy, in the attempt to redress evil, whether in Church or State, he was strong and uncompromising. When measures involving ecclesiastical opinion were under discussion, he was thoroughly alert, quick to point out what he conceived to be weak points in the armor of his opponents, sharp and decisive in piercing them, unwilling to surrender the slightest advantage or to adopt any compromise.

In debate "he thought upon his feet," and it was wonderful to hear him touch upon some point in a speech or a resolution, to which his attention had just been directed, dilate upon it, unfold all its possibilities, pursue its results to their legitimate end (and sometimes, perhaps, beyond it), until nothing was left of his antagonist or of the obnoxious measure. All this time there would be no hesitation; every word would be the exact expression of his thought; the logical process was perfect, the effect overwhelming. Such self-command is rarely seen combined with such learning and logical power. Familiar with many languages, ancient and modern, a close student of their structure and the derivation of their words, these words were his weapons; the exact scope and weight of each being carefully appraised, their relation to each other as carefully measured. He used them with telling effect, and was quick to point out where others failed to appreciate their true intent. In conversation, this power of his was displayed in quite a different way. A keen humorist, he delighted in word-play, and heartily enjoyed the sallies which resulted from an encounter of wits.

But a perfect knowledge of the qualities of different weapons would be worse than useless, were it not for an enlightened power of selecting and employing them. So the philologist is not necessarily a wise reasoner. Herein, then, lay Dr. Goodwin's great power in moulding legislation, that possessing such knowledge, his clear and highly trained reasoning powers made him a logician of the highest order. In his speeches there was a singular freedom from an attempt at eloquence or at display. He was not intent on moving the imagination of his hearers, or persuading them to his side; rather to drag them with him by the irresistible force of his reasoning.

As an educator, which, after all, was the vocation in which most of his life was passed, one of his former pupils—himself now well advanced in years, and qualified by his own well-earned standing to judge fairly—Rev. C. C. Everett, says that he possessed in those days two distinctions which contributed to his success. One was that "he taught; that was something more rare in those days, in all colleges, than now. His hour

was crammed full of information. This was chiefly in regard to the derivation and affinity of words; though the beauties and the meaning of the work studied had their place." The other distinction was "his habit of inviting the students to his house to tea." By this means, adopted in advance of his times, but now happily imitated, he became familiarly known to those committed to his charge, and gave them the advantage of social intercourse.

Apropos of this latter custom, it is related of him that, shortly after reaching Hartford, a friend visiting at their house witnessed the following characteristic scene. The door-bell rang about tea-time, and some half-dozen college students arrived. Doctor Goodwin and his wife welcomed them without any sign of surprise. After some delay a hospitable meal appeared and was discussed, followed by a pleasant evening; both host and hostess exerting themselves to entertain their uninvited visitors. After their departure each looked at the other, but neither was able to explain the visit. The next day the mystery was solved by a call from a delegation of students, who found they had been hoaxed by some of their fellows, and who desired to apologize for the intrusion. Needless to say, the young men were ever after strong friends of the president and his wife. The next invitation given to a set of students, however, was not accepted, they fearing the repetition of the joke upon themselves.

In personal appearance, Dr. Goodwin was tall and dignified, with finely-cut features and piercing eyes. The musical tones of his voice linger in one's memory. In late years, when time had crowned him with silver locks, and the deliberate step of age characterized his movements, his figure was one to command, as it received, the highest reverence. But he never lost a certain vivacity, which awakened at the meeting with his friends.

It has been said that Christian faith was the dominating keynote of his nature. None who knew him could fail to recognize the truth of this statement. He was a man of strong piety, in the noblest meaning of that word. Always grave and matured beyond his years, his religious life awakened during the later years of his college days, and steadily expanded during all the remaining years of his life, coloring and subduing all of his faculties, consecrating all his attainments to the service of his divine Master. His light shone more brightly as the darkness of waning years gathered around his earthly path. And his memory must remain, like a beacon, to those who knew him, an evidence of the profound truth and power of Christianity.

An examination of the list of his writings, to which allusion has been made, will show the versatility of his attainments, as well as the active interest he always took in those questions of the day, which, in his view, would affect injuriously the cause of Christian truth. This list covers only those speeches which were reprinted separately. To appreciate his activity in this respect, one must look through the journals of the Ecclesiastical Conventions of which he was a member, the pages of which are

crowded with evidences of his incessant participation in debate. Other articles and works are upon questions of ethics, religion, history, ethnology, philology, politics, science, statesmanship, etc., besides numerous addresses before Church congresses, college alumni, and discussions of questions relating to the polity and services of the Church, and, in addition to all these, a great body of sermons.

Dr. Goodwin suffered greatly at times, during the latter part of his life, from insomnia. From this, however, he measurably recovered, and his death, after a brief attack of partial paralysis, came most unexpectedly. On the fifteenth day of March, 1890, he passed away, leaving a gap which, in society and in the Church, cannot soon be filled, and an enduring and grateful memory in the community, for his eminent services in the cause of religion, and good learning. His epitaph may fitly be written in words of his own choice:

"A servant of Jesus Christ, and for Him a teacher of men."

He was laid to rest in Woodlands Cemetery by the side of his beloved wife, whose death a few years earlier had closed upon earth a companionship which had endured for forty-six years; and was followed to the grave by the Bishop of the Diocese and a large body of his fellow-clergy, as well as by a multitude of friends and others distinguished in every walk in life. The resolutions of affectionate regard which were adopted by the former, are appended, together with those of the Standing Committee of Pennsylvania.

Besides his membership in the American Philosophical Society, to which he was elected early in 1861, he was a member of the Historical Societies of Maine and Pennsylvania, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and the American Oriental Society; and the first President of the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis.

Appendix A.

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Appendix B.

MEMORIAL ADOPTED BY THE CLERGY.

The Clergy of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Diocese of Pennsylvania, called together by the recent death of the Reverend Doctor Daniel R. Goodwin, desire to place on record the following minute concerning their departed brother:

Dr. Goodwin's long and faithful service here made him, perhaps, the most conspicuous figure among us. His great ability, his ripe scholarship, the wide extent, indeed, and the minute accuracy of his knowledge, his quick perception, his readiness in debate, the power of his reasoning, and his unflinching courage in the maintenance of his own conscientious convictions were readily recognized by all who knew him. There were, however, other traits of his character which, possibly, more than his vigorous intellect, his rare learning, and his logical power, endeared him to his friends. For, in union with these qualities, there was in him a wonderful degree of gentleness and tenderness. No one had a keener sympathy with those in sorrow; no one a more wonderful power of adapting himself to their spiritual needs. His words to the sick and suffering, always happily chosen, were full of grace and consolation. They who were recipients of his ministry of mercy can never forget it. His rare judgment was never better tested than when he came into the seclusion of the sick-room to bring the comforts of religion. His fine mental powers, cultivated by long years of faithful and earnest study, shone at their brightest where the world is too apt least to esteem them.

They whose privilege it is to have known him in his home life—to have witnessed his affection for his friends, his gentle kindliness to little children, his fine courtesy, his deep love for those bound to him by tenderest ties, and his genuine humility—well know how large an element in his true greatness was found there. As his days drew towards their close (and, thank God, with unabated intellectual power on his part), it may without exaggeration be said of him that his spiritual nature seemed to be ripening more and more for the peaceful rest of the blessed.

True to his friends, true to his country—grandly so in her years of peril—valiant for the truth as it presented itself to his mind and his heart, long must his memory be cherished by all who have learned from him to prize what is best and noblest in the pursuits of life.

Appendix C.

MEMORIAL ADOPTED BY THE STANDING COMMITTEE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

At a meeting of the Standing Committee, held April 1, 1890, the following minute was adopted:

In the death of the Rev. Dr. Goodwin the Church has lost one of her

brightest ornaments, Theological Learning one of its most efficient upholders, and Religion one of its ablest defenders. Were this the opportunity, we might expatiate on each of these relations in which our departed friend and brother held so conspicuous a place. It will fall to the lot of others to do him justice in these particulars. It is ours rather to speak of him in connection with his membership for so many years in this body, and for most of the time its presiding officer. To say that he presided with uniform courtesy and intelligence would be saying but little. He was our authority in all matters pertaining to ecclesiastical law, and his was the acute mind which was ever ready to untie knotty questions. The adequacy of his learning was but rarely, if ever, at fault, and the lucidness and cogency of his reasonings in almost all instances, if not in all, admitted as conclusive. We shall greatly miss him here, as elsewhere in the Church. He was always, in her deliberative assemblies, a master of sentences, a mine of learning, a logical force that elicited the admiration of all. Long will he be remembered for all these high qualities by those who, in such assemblies, listened to his voice, the voice that, alas, for us, is now hushed in death.

We, too, will remember him for all that; and not less, for his devoutness in worship, his genialness in social converse, his consistency of Christian living, his honor for his high calling, and his untiring industry and inexhaustible patience in the discharge of every duty devolving on him in the various departments of effort in which he was called to exercise his eminent abilities. We thank God for all that He made him to be, and for all that, being what he was, he did for the cause of religion in the Church, and of good learning and right thinking and acting in the world. He will take his place assuredly for long continuance in the memory of the Church, and especially the Church in this Diocese, of which he was so able and devoted a minister.

Note on the Puquina Language of Peru.

By Daniel G. Brinton, M.D.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 21, 1890.*)

When the monarchy of ancient Peru, extending nearly two thousand miles along the Pacific coast, succumbed to the Spanish soldiery, it was found to be peopled by diverse tribes, speaking many dialects. These, however, belonged to but a few linguistic stocks, and both the missionaries and civil functionaries soon came to recognize three or four tongues, as "general languages," *lenguas generales*, throughout this wide area. In an official report dated in 1582, these were spoken of as three in number, the Kechua, the Aymara, and the *Puquina.** The learned missionary, Father Geronimo de Ore, writing a few years later, makes the number four, adding the Yunca to the three already given.

We have a very fair knowledge, by means of grammars and vocabularies, of the Kechua, the Aymara, and the Yunca; but up to the present time have had practically no information about the Puquina. The only specimen of it in modern treatises is the Lord's Prayer, printed by Hervas, in his *Saggio Pratico*, and copied by Adelung in the *Mithridates.*† On this specimen Hervas based the opinion that the Puquina was radically different from any other known American tongue. Mr. Clement L. Markham, on the other hand, denied this, and pronounced the Puquina "a very rude dialect of the Lupaca," and a member of the same linguistic stock as the Kechua.‡ The editors of the *Mithridates* seemed to incline to this view, as they laid stress on some similarities to the Aymara dialects (of which the Lupaca is one). Von Tschudi also adopts it in his learned work on the Kechua.§

None of these authorities had any other material to go upon than the *Pater Noster* referred to. They speak of it as the only known specimen of the tongue. Hervas credits it to a work of Geronimo de Ore, the missionary already mentioned, which it is evident that neither he nor any other of the writers named had ever seen. This work is the *Rituale seu Manuale Peruanum*, published at Naples in

* *Relaciones Geograficas de Indias, Peru.* Tome I, p. 82 (Madrid, 1881).
† *Mithridates*, Theil iii, Abth. ii, s. 548–550.
‡ Markham, in *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1871, p. 305.
§ J. J. von Tschudi, *Organismus der Ketschua Sprache*, s. 76 (Leipzig, 1884).

1607. It is indeed rare, but there is a copy in the *Bibliothèque Nationale* at Paris, which I recently consulted. It contains not only the *Pater Noster*, but thirty odd pages in the Puquina tongue, and presents a veritable mine of texts for any one to work out a satisfactory presentation of the idiom. That is not my intention, but merely to call attention to this valuable source of knowledge in the hope that some of the many able French students of linguistics will give us such an analysis of these texts as, for instance, M. Raoul de la Grasserie has accomplished for the Timucua.

The source of De Ore's information appears to be the remarkable work of Father Alonso de Barcena, *Lexica et precepta grammatica in quinque Indorum linguis quarum usus per Americam australem*, said to have been printed at Lima in 1590, but of which not a single copy is known as extant. Ore expressly states that the Puquina version of the *Doctrina Christiana* which he publishes is according to the translation of "P. Alonso de Barzana, jesuita." In addition to the *Doctrina*, he inserts a Puquina translation of the Sacraments of Baptism, the Eucharist, the Creed, various exhortations, etc. These are accompanied by renderings in Spanish or Latin, and also into the Kechua and Aymara, so that the similarities and differences of the three tongues are clearly shown.

At the time of Barcena's mission, the Puquina was spoken on various islands in Lake Titicaca, in the neighborhood of Pucarani and in several villages of the diocese of Lima. Bastian quotes Oliva as averring that it was also current on the Pacific coast, in the extreme north-west of Peru, near Lambayeque; but I should hesitate to credit this without better evidence. The Titicacan tribe who made use of it was called *Uros* or *Ochozomas*. According to the authorities they were extremely low in culture, shy and dull. Acosta says of them that they were so brutish that they did not even claim to be men, but only animals.* Garcilasso de la Vega calls them rude and stupid.† Alcedo, writing in the latter half of the last century, calls them *Hunos*, and adds that formerly they lived in great misery and degradation on the islands in the lake, but had against their will been removed to the mainland, where they dwelt

* "Son estos Uros tan brutales que ellos mismos no se tienen por hombres. Cuentase dellos que preguntadolos que gente eran, respondieron que ellos no eran hombres sino *Uros*, como si fuera otro genero de animales" (Acosta, *Hist. de las Indias*, p. 62).

† "Los Indios Puquinas * * * que son rudos y torpes" (*Comentarios Reales de los Incas*, Lib. vii, cap. iv).

in dark caves and holes in the ground, covered with reeds, and gaining a subsistence by fishing.*

They are described as very jealous about their language and unwilling that any foreigner should learn it. As they all spoke more or less Kechua, their religious exercises and necessary communications with the authorities were carried on in that tongue—which will explain the presence of a number of words appropriate to such relations in their own idiom.

The entire dissimilarity of the Puquina to both Kechua and Aymara is forcibly shown by a comparison of the numerals.

	Kechua.	*Aymara.*	*Puquina.*
1.	huc	mayni	pesc
2.	iscay	pani	so
3.	quimsa	quimsa	capa
4.	tahua	pusi	sper
5.	pichka	pisca	tacpa
6.	soccta	chocta	chichun
7.	canchis	pa-callco	stu
8.	pusacc	quimsa-callco	quina
9.	iscon	llalla-tunca	checa
10.	chunca	tunca	scata

In these lists, three of the Aymara numerals, 1, 2, and 4, are independent; four of them, 3, 5, 6, and 10, are taken from the Kechua; and the remaining three are compounds, *pa-callco* being 2 + 5; *quimsa callco*, 3 + 5, and *llalla-tunca* meaning "next to ten" or "less than ten." *Callco* is derived from the word for "foot," the counting being with the toes. On the other hand, there is not a single numeral of the Puquina which can be taken from either Kechua or Aymara, and, what is more singular, there is apparently not one which is compounded.

To illustrate the general appearance of the language, I shall give some extracts from De Ore's work, presenting the versions in the other *lenguas generales* for the sake of comparison.

The Sacrament of Baptism.

P. Quid fertes ad ecclesiam, virum aut mulierem?

℞. Virum.

P. Quid petit ab Ecclesia Dei?

* Alcedo, *Diccionario Geograficc-Historico de las Indias*, s. v. *Chucuito.*

℞. Fidem.
P. Fides quid ei praestabit?
℞. Vitam aeternam.

Aymara:

P. Cuna huahuapi yglesiaro apanita; yocallati, ymillacha?
℞. Yocallahua.
P. Diosna yglesiapata cunapi maysi?
℞. Fė Diossaro yassañassa.
P. Fė Diossaro yassañassa cunapi churani?
℞. Viñaya hacañahua.

Puquina:

P. Quiñ toopi, raago ayay, ynque atagoy ayay?
℞. Raago.
P. Quiñ hatai Diosn Yglesia huananac?
℞. Fė Dioshua cu hanchano.
P. Fė Dioshua cuhans anosc, quiñ hi yegue?
℞. Viñaya çumano (p. 63).

[*Vita eterna* is given in Quichua as *Viñay cauçaytam*, so the *Viñaya* of the Aymara and Puquina is probably Kechua.]

In Puquina:

Quid petit?—quiñ hatai?
Quid petunt?—quiñ hatanuy?

From the Sacrament of the Eucharist.

In Puquina:

Span. Jesu Cristo, hijo de Dios.
Puq. Jesu Cristo, Dios chuscu.
Sp. Quien es Jesu Christo?
Puq. Nuy Iesu Christox?
Sp. Es verdadero Dios y verdadero hombre. (?)
Puq. Iesu Christo, checa Dios, checa miñ.
(*Kech.* Iesu Christo, checan Dios, checan runam.)

Puq. uses the expression *Capac* Iesu Cristó = Kechua, *Capac*, señor.

P. Porque no reciben este Sacramento todos los Indios?
℞. Porque muchos dellos, auque estan ya Baptizados, adoran las huacas, y Idolos, como en tiempo de su gentilidad; y

no queriendo saber la ley de Dios, viven como gentiles, y beviendo con destemplanza, se emleriagan muchas vezes, y tienen enemistad los unos con los otros, y no estan en paz, usurpan la hazienda agena, sin quererla restituir, y por otros muchos vicios que tienen, les prohiben que no comulguen, y assi no reciben la Communion.

Kechua:

R. Huaquin cunaca, naupahinatac (ña baptizasca caspapas) huaccancunacta, inti, quillacta, coyllorcunacta, orcocunactapas muchascanmanta: Diospa simintapas, mana chay cama yachayta munaspa, pampa cauçascan mantahuan, huachuc cascanmanta, runa macintin checninacuc, mana allipi purictac; hucpa yma haycanta harcapuc, hiticapuc, mana copuyta munaspa; yma haycca huchactapas huc hallicuscanmanta, ama comulgancachu, ñiscam, mana chazquincuchu.

Aymara:

R. Yacapanacaca, baptizata cancassinsa, huaccanaca, inti, pacsi, huara huara, collonacasa, nayra hama hampathiri cancatapata; Diosna aropasa hani uca cama yatiña munasina, pampa hacata pampi, huatuca cancatapata, haque macipampi checnissiri, yancana çariri. maynina cunacauquisa harquiri, huaccaychasiri, hani ucaniro cutiyana munasina; cuna cauqui huchampisa huchallissitapata, hani comulganiti, satapi, hani catupisquiti.

Puquina:

R. Huaquin a miñs ehe peogunha baptizaso samp, chu uña co acoa, inti, uque, chinacuna, chatallata hamp upallisoch, Dios hors hamp, apa cogama siscano hatarahua, pampaca quichcasochin, chu uñ atago roguesach; chu uñ mih matipura checniscanunch, entot quichgueno; miñ quiñ harqueno vatiqueno; apaeheguina, eno hatarava; quiñ hinanti huchallicuscaso hamp, ama comulgascaquinch, a sos apa ytinunch.

Spanish:

Creeis en Dios Padre, todo poderoso, creador del cielo, y de la tierra, de las cosas visibles y invisibles?

R. Yo creo.

Kechua:

P. Y, ñin quichu Dios yaya, llapa atipacman, hanac pachap, cay pachap, ricuricpa, mana ricuricpa, ruraquenman?

R. Y ñinim.

Aymara:

P. Ya, stati, mayni çapaqui Dios Auqui, taque atipiriro, harac pachana, aca pachana, uñatanacana, hani uñatanacansa luririparo?

R. Ya satapi.

Puquina:

P. Cuhañapi Dios yqui vin atipeno guttac, hanigo pacas, hopacas, co hanquench, appa cohanquench, callaquenoguta?

R. Cuhañequench.

Spanish:

As adorado huacas, villcas, cerros, rios, el Sol, y otra cora?

Kechua:

Huacacta, villcacta, orcocunacta, mayucta, ymaymana cunacta huampas muchacchu canqui?

Aymara:

Huaccanaca, villcanaca, collonaca, hauirinaca, inti, pacsi, yaccapa cuna cauquisa hampa thiritati?

Puquina:

Vpallinoui chatallata, coa, chacar, cachia, paragara, pachamama, inti, vin quiñeno hamp?

I add the *Pater Noster*, as the copies in Hervas and the *Mithridates* are defective in accurracy of proof-reading.

Pater Noster in Puquina.

Señ yqui, hanigo pacas cunana ascheno, po mana vpallisuhanta; po capáca aschano señ guta huachunta, po hatano callacaso hanta, quiguri hanigopa casna ehe cahu cohuacasna hamp; Kaa gamenque ehehesuma. Señ guta camen señ tanta, señ hochaghe, pampaehe sumao, quiguri señ, señ guta huchachasqueno gata pampachanganch cagu. Ama èhe acrosuma huchaguta señ hotonsuà enahata entonana quespina sumau. Amen.

It is obvious on a superficial examination that there are a number of verbal analogies, probably loan-words, to both Aymara and Kechua. Such are *inti*, sun; *mocna*, pl., *moccon*, hand, allied to Kechua *maqui*, etc.

The negative is *ama*, as:

Thou shalt not kill; *ama hallanaqueuanch*. Thou shalt not commit adultery; *ama suaguepanch*.

This is also a negative adverb in Kechua.

The plural is formed by various changes of the termination, as:

Man (*homo*), *miñ*, pl., *miñs;* as "many men," *hoaquina miñs;* "all men," *hinantin miñs*; "your mother," *pomi;* "your mothers," *pomig*.

There seems a greater tendency to monosyllabism in the Puquina than in either of the other two tongues. Such words as *raago*, man (*vir.*); *atago*, woman; seem to be built up from the roots *ra* and *at*.

But as the object of this note is merely to call attention to the material for the study of this language, I shall not pursue these reflections.

NOTE.—About the beginning of June, the Society temporarily removed, and stored its collections, library, etc., etc., and vacated its building to enable alterations to be made that would render the same more commodious and fire-proof. The interior was remodeled, the two (southern) meeting rooms thrown into one, as also were the two northern rooms, and a new third story, to contain the books and MSS. of the Society, was added. No meeting was held until

November 7, 1890.

The Society came together in the new meeting room.

Present, 31 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Mr. Robert Patterson Field, a newly elected member, was presented to the Chair, and took his seat.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters accepting membership in the Society from Messrs. George S. Fullerton, Robert P. Field, Heman L. Wayland, Philadelphia; Charles G. Leland, London, Eng.

A circular from Mr. A. Strauch, announcing his successorship to Mr. C. Vessilosski, as Secretary of the Académie Impériale des Sciences, St. Petersburg.

Circulars from the K. Zoologisch Genootschap Natura Artis Magistra, Amsterdam, announcing the death of Dr. G. F. Westerman, and the election of Dr. C. Kerbert as his successor.

A circular from the K. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Göttingen, requesting Transactions, xiii, 3.

A circular from the Société Botanique Bavaroise, Munich, requesting exchanges.

A circular from M. Miguel Perez, announcing his successorship to Prof. Mariano Barcena, as Directeur of the Observatorio Meteorológico Magnético Central, Mexico.

Letters from societies responding to the request of the American Philosophical Society for exchanges, were as follows:

The Royal Asiatic Society (Straits Branch), Singapore; K. Danske Geografiske Selskab, Copenhagen; Observatorium der K. K. Nautischen Akademie, Triest; K. K. Militär-Geographische Institut, Wien; Geodätische Institut, Hydrographische Amt des Reichs-Marine-Amt, Berlin; Verein für Erdkunde, Cassel; K. Sächs. Meteorologische Institut, Chemnitz; Siebenbergische Verein für Naturwissenschaften, Hermannstadt; Naturwissenschaftliche Verein, Osnabrück; Würtembergische Verein für Handelsgeographie, Stuttgart; Etat Indépendant du Congo, Bruxelles; Société Neuchateloise de Géographie, Neuchâtel; Union Géographique du Nord de la France, Douai; Société de Geographie, Lille; Ministero di Agr. e Commercio Direzione Generale della Statistica, Rome; Manchester Geographical Society; Belfast Natural History and Philosophical Society; Instituto Meteorologico Nacional de Costa Rica; Dirección General de Estadistica, La Plata.

Letters of envoy were received from the Secretary of Mines,

Melbourne, Australia; Royal Asiatic Society (Straits Branch), Singapore; Société de Géographie de Finlande, Helsingfors; Université Royale, Lund; Fondation de P. Teyler van der Hulst, Harlem; Osservatorio Marittimo dell' i. k. Accademia di Nautica, Trieste; K. Geologische Landesanstalt und Bergakademie, Prof. F. Reuleaux, Berlin; Würtembergische Vierteljahrshefte für Landesgeschichte, Stuttgart; Société de Géographie de Lille; Royal Statistical Society, Meteorological Office, London; Mr. W. Sinclair, Glasgow; Boston Society of Natural History; Department of State, United States Geological Survey, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.; Public Ledger Family, Philadelphia; Observatorio Nacional, Oficina Meteorológica Argentina, Cordoba, S. A.

Letters of acknowledgment (Transactions, xvi, 3) were received from the Société Royale de Zoologie, Amsterdam; Fondation de P. Teyler van der Hulst, Harlem; Bataafsch Genootschap der Proefondervendelijke Wijsbegeerte, Rotterdam; R. Accademia dei Lincei, Rome; K. Bibliothek, Berlin; Philosophical Society, Cambridge; Royal Society, Royal Institution, Royal Astronomical Society, Society of Antiquaries, London; Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford; Royal Society of Edinburgh; Boston Society of Natural History.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from Dr. Julius Platzmann, Leipzig (127); R. Academia de la Historia, Madrid (128, 129, 130); University Library, Cambridge. Eng. (133); Radcliffe Observatory, Oxford, Eng. (127–133); University of Toronto, Canada (99–133, Catalogue, Pts. i–iv, etc.); Dr. John M. Maisch, Mrs. Helen Abbott Michael, Philadelphia (128, 129, etc.); University of Iowa, Iowa City (125, 128, 129); Messrs. Lyman B. Hall (133), John A. Ryder, Benjamin Sharp, Philadelphia (128, 129, 132, 133).

Acknowledgments (129) were received from Mr. Samuel Davenport, Adelaide, S. Australia; Imperial Academy of Science, St. Petersburg; Prof. Paul Hunfalvy, Buda-Pesth, Hungary; Université Royale, Lund; South African Philosophical Society, Cape Town; Centralblatt für Physiologie, Berlin; Dr. Otto Böhttingk, Leipzig; Academie Royale des Sciences, Lisbon, Portugal.

Acknowledgments (130) were received from the Geological Survey of India, Calcutta; Tokyo Library, Tokyo, Japan; Royal Society of New South Wales, Sydney; Imperial Academy of Science, St. Petersburg; Université Royale, Lund; Fondation de P. Teyler van der Hulst, Harlem, Netherlands; Société Entomologique de Belgique, Bruxelles; Profs. Matthæus Much, Josef Szombathy, Vienna, Austria; Deutsche Geologische Gesellschaft, K. Preuss. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Gesellschaft für Erdkunde, Physiologische Gesellschaft, Berlin; Naturwissenschaftlicher Verein, Bremen; Verein für Thüringische Geschichte und Altertumskunde, Jena; Dr. Otto Böhtlingk, Leipzig; K. Sternwarte, München; Verein für Naturkunde, Offenbach a. Main; Dr. C. A. Dohrn, Stettin; Marquis Antonio De Gregorio, Palermo, Sicily; R. Accademia di Scienze, Lettere ed Arti, Padova; R. Accademia dei Lincei, R. Comitato Geologico d'Italia, Prof. Giuseppe Sergi, Rome, R. Osservatorio, Turin; Prof. Claudio Jannet, Prof. Lucien Adam, Rennes, France; Royal Society, Royal Observatory, Mr. James Geikie, Edinburgh, Scotland; Prof. J. P. Postgate, Cambridge, Eng.; Society of Arts, Juhlin Dannfelt, London; Natural History Society, Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Boston Society of Natural History; Messrs. H. D. Gregory, Inman Horner, Philadelphia; Mr. Everard F. im Thurn, British Guiana; South African Philosophical Society, Cape Town.

Letters of acknowledgment (131, 132, 133) were received from the Musée Royale d'Histoire Naturelle de Belgique, Bruxelles; K. K. Central-Anstalt für Meteorologie und Erdmagnetismus, Drs. Aristides Brezina, Friedrich S. Krauss, Wien; Naturforschende Gesellschaft des Osterlandes, Altenburg; Gesellschaft für Erdkunde, K. Geol. Landesanst. u. Bergakademie, Berlin; Verein für Erdkunde, Dresden; K. Sächs. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Dr. Julius Platzmann, Leipzig; Verein für Geographie und Statistik, Frankfurt a. M.; Verein für Naturkunde, Offenbach a. M.; Société d'Anthropologie, Musée Guimet, Messrs. A. Del Cloizeaux, Abel Hovelacque, Claudio Jannet, E. Levasseur, Paris; Prof. Lucien Adam, Rennes, France; Philosophical Society, Prof. J. P. Post-

gate, Cambridge, Eng.; Mr. Samuel Timmins, Coventry, Eng.; Yorkshire Geological and Palæontological Society, Halifax, Eng.; Society of Antiquaries, Royal Society, Royal Astronomical, Statistical, Linnean, Geographical Societies, Royal Institution, Local Government Board, Dr. J. D. Hooker, London; Natural History Society of Northumberland, etc., Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Royal Society, Royal Observatory, Prof. J. Geikie, Edinburgh; Royal Dublin Society; Nova Scotia Institute of Natural Science, Halifax, N. S.; Natural History Society, Montreal, Canada; Mr. Horatio Hale, Clinton, Ontario; Geological and Natural History Survey, Ottawa, Canada; Hon. J. M. Le Moine, Quebec; Canadian Institute, University of Toronto, Sir Daniel Wilson, Toronto, Canada; Maine Historical Society, Portland Society of Natural History, Portland, Me.; New Hampshire Historical Society, Concord; Prof. C. H. Hitchcock, Hanover, N. H.; Amherst College Library, Amherst, Mass.; American Statistical Association, Boston Athenæum, Massachusetts Historical Society, Public Library, Boston Society of Natural History, State Library of Massachusetts, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, Boston; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Harvard College Library, Messrs. Robert N. Toppan, Joseph Lovering, J. D. Whitney, Cambridge; Mr. James B. Francis, Lowell, Mass.; Dr. Pliny Earle, Northampton, Mass.; Rev. Edward E. Hale, Roxbury, Mass.; Essex Institute, Salem; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass.; Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence; Franklin Society, Providence, R. I.; Connecticut Historical Society, Hartford; New Haven Colony Historical Society; New York State Library, Mr. James Hall, Albany; Prof. Walter Le Conte Stevens, Brooklyn; Buffalo Library; Prof. C. H. F. Peters, Clinton, N. Y.; Profs. J. M. Hart, T. F. Crane, B. G. Wilder, Ithaca, N. Y.; Astor Library, Columbia College, University of the City of New York, New York Hospital, New York Historical Society, Editors of "The Critic," Messrs. H. L. Abbot, Joel A. Allen, Daniel Draper, James Douglas, J. S. Newberry, J. J. Stevenson, New York; Oneida Histori-

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William Osler, Baltimore, Md.; Smithsonian Institution, Surgeon-General's Office, United States Geological Survey, United States Naval Observatory, Anthropological Society, Messrs. Alexander Graham Bell, A. S. Gatschet, W. J. Hoffman, Thomas Jefferson Lee, Garrick Mallery, M. C. Meigs, C. V. Riley, Charles A. Schott, William B. Taylor, Lester F. Ward, Washington, D. C.; West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.; Virginia Historical Society, Richmond; Prof. John W. Mallet, University of Virginia; Dr. Robert Peter, Lexington, Ky.; Georgia Historical Society, Savannah; Prof. Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Prof. E. W. Claypole, Akron, O.; Society of Natural History, Cincinnati Observatory, Cincinnati, O.; Rev. H. Stafford Osborn, Oxford, O.; Prof. John L. Campbell, Crawfordsville, Ind.; Chicago Historical Society, Chicago, Ill.; State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; University of Iowa, Iowa City; Academy of Natural Sciences, Davenport, Iowa; Kansas Academy of Science, Washburn College, Kansas Historical Society, Topeka; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; University of California, Profs. John Le Conte, Joseph Le Conte, Berkeley; Mr. George R. Babcock, Oakland, Cal.; Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, Riverside, Cal.; Free Public Library, Mr. George Dadidson, San Francisco, Cal.; Sociedad Cientifica "Antonio Alzate," Mexico; Observatorio Astronomico Nacional Mexicano, Tacubaya; Museo Michoacamo, Morelia, Mexico; Bishop Crescencio Carrillo, Merida, Yucatan; Mr. E. F. im Thurn, British Guiana.

Accessions to the Library were received from the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, Singapore; Royal Society of South Australia, Adelaide; Royal Geographical Society of Australasia, Secretary of Mines, Melbourne; New Zealand Institute, Wellington; Royal Society of New South Wales; Technical Museum, Sydney; Royal Society of Tasmania; Institut Egyptien, Cairo; Société Impériale de Geographie, St. Petersburg; Académi des Sciences, Cracow, Austria; K. Nautische Akademie, Triest, Austria; K. K. Geographische Gesellschaft, Vienna; Geographische-Commercielle Gesellschaft, Aarau, Switzerland; Geographische Gesellschaft, Naturfor-

schende Gesellschaft, Bern; K. Universitetet, Lund; Physiologische Gesellschaft, Prof. F. Reuleaux, Berlin; K. Sächs. Alterthums-Verein, Dresden; Mr. Emile Schwœrer, Colmar, Alsace; Geographische Gesellschaft, Hamburg; Geographische Gesellschaft, Hanover; Deutsche Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, etc., Mr. J. E. Weiss, Munich; Mr. W. Grosseteste, Mülhausen, Alsace; Naturwissenschaftlicher Verein, Osnabruck; Würtembergische Vierteljahrsheft für Landesgeschichte, Stuttgart; Société de Geographie, Neuchâtel; Società Africana d'Italia, Naples; Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio, Rome; Mr. L. M. Billia, Turin; Union Géographique du Nord de la France, Douay, France; Société de Géographie, Lille; Société Languedocienne de Géographie, Montpellier; Société d'Emulation des Côtes-du-Nord, St. Brieuc; Instituto y Observatorio de Marina de San Fernando; Royal Geological Society of Cornwall, Eng.; Meteorological Council and Office, Royal Society, Editors of "Nature," London; University College, Nottingham, Eng.; Penzance Natural History and Antiquarian Society, Boston Society of Natural History, Massachusetts Historical Society, Boston; Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence; Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.; American Chemical Society, New York; New Jersey Historical Society, Newark; Alumni Association of the College of Pharmacy, Publishers of "The Medical News," Franklin Institute, Library Company of Philadelphia, Dr. Charles W. Dulles, Philadelphia; War Department, United States Naval Observatory, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; Denison University, Granville, O.; Washington University, St. Louis; Kansas State Librarian, Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka; Colorado College Scientific Society, Colorado Springs; Historical Society of Southern California, Los Angelos; California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco; Bishop Crescencio Carrillo, Merida, Yucatan.

An obituary notice of Rev. Daniel R. Goodwin, D.D., was read by J. Vaughan Merrick.

The death of Dr. Richard J. Levis, November 11, 1890, æt. 63, was announced.

Obituary Notices.

Letters Accepting Membership.

Miscellaneous.

LIST OF SURVIVING MEMBERS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA

FOR

PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

Corrected to January 2, 1891,

BY

HENRY PHILLIPS, JR.

A Secretary of the Society.

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Meetings Held.

New Members Elected.

February 21, 1890.

No. 2178. Henry Willis . . . . . Philadelphia.
2177. Robert W. Rogers . . . . . Haverford, Pa.
2176. Samuel Timmins . . . . . Arley, near Coventry, England.
2175. James T. Mitchell . . . . . Philadelphia.

May 16, 1890.

No. 2182. Charles Godfrey Leland . . . . . London.
2181. Heman L. Wayland . . . . . Philadelphia.
2180. Robert Patterson Field . . . . . Philadelphia.
2179. George S. Fullerton . . . . . Philadelphia.

December 19, 1890.

No. 2186. Louis Vossion . . . . . Philadelphia.
2185. William C. Unwin . . . . . London.
2184. E. Mascart . . . . . Paris.
2183. Theodore Turrettini . . . . . Geneva.

Decease of Members.

Resignations of Members.

Obituary Notices.

Letters Accepting Membership.

Miscellaneous.

LIST OF SURVIVING MEMBERS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA

FOR

PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

Corrected to January 2, 1891,

BY

HENRY PHILLIPS, JR.

A Secretary of the Society.

LIST OF SURVIVING MEMBERS

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List of surviving Members of the American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia for Promoting Useful Knowledge.

The addresses here given so far as known are at the present time. Corrections of this list are respectfully solicited.

A name printed in *italics* indicates that the Society is uncertain as to whether such member is still living and desires information on the subject.

The Society will be happy to receive *photographs* of such of its members as have not already sent.

A

Name.	*Date of Election.*	*Present Address.*
1687. ABBÉ, CLEVELAND	July 21, 1871,	Army Weather Bureau, Washington, D. C.
2170. ABBOTT, CHARLES C.	Dec. 20, 1889,	Trenton, N. J.
1463. ABBOTT, HENRY L.	April 18, 1862,	New York City, N. Y.
1809. ÅCKERMAN, RICHARD	July 21, 1876,	Stockholm, Sweden.
1713. ACLAND, HENRY W.	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Oxford, England.
2128. ADAM, LUCIEN	Dec. 17, 1886,	Rennes, France.
2081. ADAMS, H. B.	May 21, 1886,	Baltimore, Md.
1238. ADAMS, JOHN COUCH	Jan'y 21, 1848,	Cambridge, England.
1381. *Adamson, Rev. John C.*	July 13, 1856.	
1779. AGASSIZ, ALEXANDER	April 16, 1875,	Cambridge, Mass.
1642. AGASSIZ, ELIZABETH	Oct. 15, 1869,	" "
1701. AGNEW, D. HAYES	April 19, 1872,	Philadelphia.
1886. AIRY, GEORGE BIDDLE, SIR	July 18, 1879,	Greenwich, England.
2091. ALBRECHT, PAUL	May 21, 1886,	Hamburg, Germany.
1812. ALCANTARA, DOM PEDRO D'	Oct. 20, 1876,	Paris, France.
1860. ALISON, ROBERT H.	May 3, 1878,	Ardmore, Pa.
1869. ALLEN, JOEL ASAPH	Sept. 20, 1878,	New York, N. Y.
1571. ALLEN, HARRISON	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Philadelphia.
1776. ALLISON, JOSEPH	April 16, 1875,	"
1927. AMES, CHARLES G.	Jan'y 21, 1881,	Boston, Mass.
2064. ANDERSON, GEORGE B.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	West Point, N. Y.
1655. ANDERSON, GEORGE W.	Oct. 15, 1869,	Rosemont, Pa.
1576. ANDERSON, M. B.	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Rochester, N. Y.
2164. ANGELL, JAMES B.	Oct. 18, 1889,	Ann Arbor, Mich.
1122. *Angelis, Pedro de.*	Jan'y 17, 1840,	*Buenos Ayres.*
2102. ARGYLL, DUKE OF	May 21, 1886,	London, England.
1761. ARMSTRONG, WM. GEORGE	July 17, 1874,	Newcastle-on-Tyne, England.
1996. ASHHURST, JOHN	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
2012. ASHHURST, RICHARD L.	April 18, 1884,	"

B

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address
1995. BACHE, RICHARD MEADE	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1832. BACHE, THOMAS HEWSON	Feb'y 2, 1877,	"
1630. BAIRD, HENRY CAREY	Jan'y 15, 1869,	"
1991. BAIRD, HENRY M.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	New York, N. Y.
2015. BAKER, JOHN R.	April 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
2075. BAKER, WILLIAM S.	May 21, 1886,	"
1157. BANCROFT, GEORGE	July 16, 1841,	Washington, D. C.
1936. BARBER, EDWIN ATLEE	April 15, 1881,	West Chester, Pa.
1818. BARCENA, MARIANO	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Mexico.
1741. BARKER, GEORGE F.	April 18, 1873,	Philadelphia.
2011. BARKER, WHARTON	April 18, 1884,	"
2144. BARNARD, WILLIAM T.	May 20, 1887,	Baltimore, Md.
1902. BARTHOLOW, ROBERTS	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1133. BARTLETT, W. H. C.	April 17, 1840,	Yonkers, N. Y.
2119. BASTIAN, ADOLPH	Dec. 17, 1886,	Berlin, Germany.
1934. BEAULIEU, PAUL LEROY	April 15, 1881,	Paris, France.
1968. BELL, ALEXANDER GRAHAM	July 21, 1882,	Washington.
1966. BELL, JOSEPH SNOWDEN	July 21, 1882,	Philadelphia.
1802. BELL, LOWTHIAN	April 21, 1876,	Newcastle-on-Tyne, England
2149. BIDDLE, ALEXANDER	Feb'y 17, 1888,	Philadelphia.
2154. BIDDLE, ARTHUR	Dec. 21, 1888,	"
2173. BIDDLE, A. SYDNEY	Dec. 20, 1889,	"
1920. BIDDLE, CADWALADER	Oct. 15, 1880,	"
1831. BIDDLE, CRAIG	Feb'y 2, 1877,	"
2134. BILLINGS, JOHN S.	Feb'y 18, 1887,	Washington, D. C.
2157. BLAIR, ANDREW A.	May 17, 1889,	Philadelphia.
1554. *Blair, Thomas S.*	Jan'y 19, 1866,	*Pittsburgh, Pa.*
1669. BLAKE, WILLIAM PHIPPS	Oct. 21, 1870,	New Haven, Conn.
1790. BLASIUS, WILLIAM	Oct. 15, 1875,	Philadelphia.
1700. BLODGET, LORIN	April 19, 1872,	"
1444. BÖHTLINGK, OTTO	Jan'y 17, 1862,	Leipzig, Germany.
2047. BONWILL, W J. A.	Oct. 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1852. *Borgnis, J. A.*	Oct. 20, 1820,	*Paris, France.* (?)
1126. BOYÈ, MARTIN H.	Jan'y 17, 1840,	Coopersburg, Pa.
1826. BRACKETT, CYRUS FOGG	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Princeton, N. J.
2083. BRANNER, JOHN C.	May 21, 1886,	Little Rock, Ark.
2195. BREZINA, ARISTIDES	May 21, 1886,	Vienna, Austria.
1636. BRINTON, DANIEL G.	April 16, 1869,	Philadelphia.
2069. BRINTON, JOHN H.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	"
1745. BRITTON, J. BLODGETT	Oct. 17, 1873,	"
2080. BROOKS, WILLIAM KEITH	May 21, 1886,	Baltimore, Md.
1881. BROWN, ARTHUR ERWIN	April 18, 1879,	Philadelphia.
1333. BROWN-SEQUARD, E.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Paris, France.
1614. BRUGSH, HENRI	Jan'y 15, 1869.	Berlin, Prussia.
1547. BRUSH, GEORGE J.	Jan'y 20, 1865,	New Haven, Conn.
1653. BULLOCK, CHARLES	Oct. 15, 1869,	Philadelphia.
1452. BUNSEN, ROBERT W.	Jan'y 17, 1862,	Heidelberg, Germany.
2008. BURK, ISAAC	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
2007. BURK, JESSE Y.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	"
1378. BURMEISTER, HERMANN	April 18, 1856,	Buenos Ayres, S. A.
1938. BUTLER, WILLIAM	April 15, 1881,	West Chester, Pa.

C

1788. CAMPBELL, JOHN LYLE	July 16, 1875,	Crawfordsville, Ind.
1606. CANBY, WILLIAM MARRIATT	Oct. 16, 1868,	Wilmington, Del.

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address
2051. CANNIZZARO, TOMMASO	Oct. 16, 1885,	Messina, Italy.
1731. CAPELLINI, GIOVANNI	April 18, 1873,	Bologna, Italy.
1796. CARLL, J. B. F.	Oct. 15, 1875,	Pleasantville, Pa.
2130. CARRILLO, CRESCENCIO	Dec. 17, 1886,	Merida, Yucatan.
1911. CARSON, HAMPTON L.	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1707. CASSATT, ALEXANDER JOHNSON .	Oct. 18, 1872,	"
2147. CASTNER, SAMUEL, JR.	Dec. 16, 1887,	"
2152. CATTELL, J. MCKEEN	May 18, 1888,	Media, Pa.
1675. CATTELL, WILLIAM C.	Jan'y 20, 1871,	Philadelphia.
1908. CHANCE, HENRY MARTYN . . .	April 16, 1880,	New York, N. Y.
1783. CHANDLER, C. F.	April 16, 1875,	" "
1778. CHAPMAN, HENRY C.	April 16, 1875,	Philadelphia.
2132. CHARENCY, HYACINTH DE . . .	Dec. 17, 1886,	St. Maurice les Charency France.
1522. CHASE, THOMAS	Jan'y 15, 1864,	Providence, R. I.
2111. CHILDS, GEORGE W.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.
2158. CLARK, CLARENCE H.	May 17, 1889,	"
1717. CLARKE, THOMAS C.	Jan'y 17, 1873,	New York, N. Y.
1983. CLAYPOLE, E. W.	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Akron, Ohio.
2048. CLEEMANN. T. M..	Oct. 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1999. COHEN, J. SOLIS	Jan'y 18, 1884,	"
2005. COLERIDGE, LORD	Jan'y 18, 1884,	London, England.
1555. COPE, EDWARD D..	Jan'y 19, 1866,	Philadelphia.
1367. COPPÉE, HENRY	Jan'y 18, 1856,	Bethlehem, Pa.
2129. CORA, GUIDO	Dec. 17, 1886,	Turin, Italy.
1474. CORNELIUS, ROBERT	Oct. 17, 1862,	Philadelphia.
1867. COUES, ELLIOTT	Sept. 20, 1878,	Washington, D. C.
1662. COX, J. D.	Vpril 15, 1870,	Toledo, O.
1672. COXE, ECKLEY B.	Oct. 21, 1870,	Drifton, Pa.
1836. CRANE, THOMAS F.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Ithaca, N. Y.
1393. CRESSON, CHARLES M.	April 17, 1857,	Philadelphia.
2100. CROOKES, WILLIAM	May 21, 1886,	London, England.
2172. CRUZ, FERNANDO (of Guatemala)	Dec. 20, 1889,	Washington, D. C.
1439. CURWEN, JOHN	April 18, 1861,	Warren, Pa.

D

1567. DA COSTA, J. M.	Oct. 19, 1866,	Philadelphia.
1354. DANA, JAMES D	July 21, 1854,	New Haven, Conn.
1806. DANNEFELD, C. JUHLIN	April 21, 1876,	Stockholm, Sweden.
1516. DAUBRÉE, A.	July 17, 1863,	Paris, France.
1811. DAVENPORT, SAMUEL.	Oct. 20, 1876,	Adelaide, S. Australia.
1557. DAVIDSON, GEORGE.	Jan'y 19, 1866,	San Francisco, Cal.
1980. DAVIS, WILLIAM M.	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Philadelphia.
1923. DAWKINS, WILLIAM B	Oct. 15, 1880,	Manchester, England.
1468. DAWSON, JOHN W	April 18, 1862,	Montreal, Canada.
2131. DELGADA, JUAN DE DIAS DE LA RADA Y.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Madrid, Spain.
991. *Del Rio, Andres*	Oct. 15, 1830,	*Mexico.*
854. *De Montgèry*	Oct. 20, 1820.	
1964. DE ROSNY, LÉON	July 21, 1882,	Paris, France.
1876. DES CLOIZEAUX, A.	Oct. 18, 1879,	" "
2045. DE VERE, M. SCHELE.	Oct. 16, 1885,	University of Virginia.
2013. DICKSON, SAMUEL	April 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1341. DOHRN, C. A.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Stettin, Prussia.
2108. DOLLEY, CHARLES S.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
2089. DONNER, OTTO.	May 21. 1886,	Helsingfors, Finland.
1946. DOOLITTLE, C. L.	Oct. 21, 1881,	Bethlehem, Pa.
1839. DOUGLASS, JAMES, JR.	April 20, 1877,	Spuytenduyvil, N. Y.
1924. DRAPER, DANIEL	Oct. 15, 1880,	New York, N. Y.
1787. DROWN, THOMAS M	July 16, 1875,	Boston, Mass.
1918. DU BOIS, PATTERSON	Oct. 15, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1878. DUDLEY, CHARLES BENJAMIN . .	Jan'y 17, 1879,	Altoona, Pa.
1921. DUDLEY, THOMAS H	Oct. 15, 1880,	Camden, N. J.
1615. DÜMICHEN, JOHANNES.	Jan'y 15, 1869,	Strasburg, Germany.
2063. DUNCAN, LOUIS	Feb'y 19, 1886,	U. S. Navy.
1573. DUNNING, GEORGE F.	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Farmington, Conn.
1727. DUPONT, EDOUARD	April 18, 1873,	Brussels, Belgium.
2086. DURUY, VICTOR	May 21, 1886,	Paris, France.
1679. DUTTON, CLARENCE E	Jan'y 20, 1871,	Washington, D. C.

E

1560. EARLE, PLINY.	April 20, 1866,	Northampton, Mass.
2105. EASTON, MORTON W.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1917. ECKFELDT, JACOB B	Oct. 15, 1880,	"
1825. EDDY, HENRY T.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Cincinnati, O.
1686. ELIOT, CHARLES W.	April 21, 1871,	Cambridge, Mass.
1981. EMMONS, S. F.	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Washington, D. C.
1405. *Evans, Edmund C.*	Jan'y 21, 1859.	
1943. EVANS, JOHN	Oct. 21, 1881,	Hemel Hempstead, Eng.

F

1273. *Farnum, Joseph W.*	Jan'y 17, 1851,	*Camden, N. J.*
2180. FIELD, ROBERT PATTERSON . . .	May 16, 1890,	Philadelphia.
1901. FLINT, AUSTIN, JR	April 16, 1880,	New York, N. Y.
1621. FLOWER, WM. HENRY.	Jan'y 15, 1869,	London, England.
1875. FOGGO, EDWARD A.	Oct. 18, 1879,	Philadelphia.
1170. FRALEY, FREDERICK	July 15, 1842,	"
1912. FRALEY, JOSEPH C.	April 16, 1880,	"
1551. FRANCIS, JAMES B	April 21, 1865,	Lowell, Mass.
1695. FRAZER, PERSIFOR	Jan'y 19, 1872,	Philadelphia.
2171. FRIEBIS, GEORGE	Dec. 20, 1889,	"
1459. FROUDE, J. A.	Jan'y 17, 1862,	London, England.
2179. FULLERTON, GEORGE S.	May 16, 1890,	Philadelphia.
1739. FULTON, JOHN.	April 18, 1873,	Johnstown, Pa.
1914. FURNESS, HORACE HOWARD . . .	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1130. FURNESS, WILLIAM H.	April 17, 1840,	"

G

1063. *Galvez, Mariano*	Oct. 21, 1836,	*Guatemala, C. A.*
1988. GARRETT, PHILIP C	April 20, 1883,	Philadelphia.
2014. GARRISON, JOSEPH F.	April 18, 1884,	Camden, N. J.
2079. GATES, M. E	May 21, 1886,	Amherst, Mass.
1025. GATSCHET, ALBERT S.	Oct. 17, 1884,	Washington, D. C.
1897. GEIKIE, ARCHIBALD	Jan'y 16, 1880,	London, England.
1803. GEIKIE, JAMES.	April 21, 1876,	Edinburgh, Scotland.
1339. GENTH, FRED. AUGUSTUS.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Philadelphia.
2067. GENTH, F. A., JR.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	"
1355. GIBBS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.	July 21, 1854,	Cambridge, Mass.
1587. GILL, THEODORE NICHOLAS . . .	July 19, 1867,	Washington, D. C.
1800. GILMAN, DANIEL C.	April 21, 1876,	Baltimore, Md.
1940. *Giraldes, J. P. C. Cassado de.* . .	July 20, 1827.	

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1950. GLADSTONE, WM. EWART	Oct. 21, 1881,	London, England.
2162. GOODE, G. BROWN	Oct. 18, 1889,	Washington, D. C.
1835. GOODELL, WILLIAM	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1690. GOODFELLOW, EDWARD.	Jan'y 20, 1871,	Washington, D. C.
1271. GOULD, BEN. APTHORPE	Jan'y 17, 1851,	Cambridge, Mass.
1851. GRAY, ELISHA.	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Chicago, Ill.
1605. GREEN, TRAILL	Oct. 16, 1868,	Easton, Pa.
1504. GREEN, WILLIAM HENRY	April 17, 1863,	Princeton, N. J.
1880. GREENE, WILLIAM H.	April 18, 1879,	Philadelphia.
2155. GREGORIO, IL MARCHESE ANTONIO DE	Dec. 21, 1888,	Palermo, Italy.
2159. GREGORY, HENRY D.	May 17, 1889,	Philadelphia.
1229. *Grimaldi, Ceva*	Oct. 16, 1846,	*Naples, Italy.*
1939. GRISCOM, WM. WOODNUTT	April 15, 1881,	Haverford, Pa.
1815. GROTE, AUGUSTUS RADCLIFFE . .	Oct. 20, 1876.	
2090. GUBERNATIS, ANGELO DE	May 21, 1886,	Florence, Italy.
1438. GUYANGOS, PASCUAL DE.	April 19, 1861,	*Madrid, Spain.*

H

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
2054. HAECKEL, ERNEST.	Oct. 16, 1885,	Jena, Prussia.
2066. HAGAN, H. A.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Cambridge, Mass.
1658. HALE, EDW. EVERETT	Jan'y 21, 1870,	Roxbury, Mass.
1709. HALE, HORATIO	Oct. 18, 1872,	Clinton, Canada.
1853. HALL, ASAPH	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Washington, D. C.
1795. HALL, CHARLES EDWARD	Oct. 15, 1875,	Westport, N. Y.
1356. HALL, JAMES	July 21, 1854,	Albany, N. Y.
2027. HALL, LYMAN B	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Haverford, Pa.
1412. HAMMOND, WILLIAM A	Oct. 21, 1859,	New York, N. Y.
1337. HARDING, GEORGE	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Philadelphia.
2136. HARRIS, JOSEPH S.	May 20, 1887,	"
1827. HART, JAMES MORGAN.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Cincinnati, O.
1510. HARTSHORNE, HENRY.	July 17, 1863,	Philadelphia.
1764. HAUER, FRANZ RITTER VON. . .	Oct. 16, 1874,	Vienna, Austria.
1681. HAUPT, HERMANN.	April 21, 1871,	Washington, D. C.
1862. HAUPT, LEWIS M.	May 3, 1878,	Philadelphia.
2082. HAYES, R. SOMERS.	May 21, 1886,	New York, N. Y.
2071. HAYS, J. MINIS	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Philadelphia.
2165. HAZLEHURST, HENRY	Oct. 18, 1889,	"
1985. HEILPRIN, ANGELO	April 20, 1883,	"
1734. HELMHOLTZ, HEINRICH	April 18, 1873,	Berlin, Prussia.
1497. HILGARD, J. E.	April 17, 1863,	Washington, D. C.
1963. HILL, HAMILTON ANDREWS . . .	April 21, 1882,	Boston, Mass.
1501. HILL, THOMAS.	April 17, 1863,	Portland, Me.
2110. HILPRECHT, HERMANN V.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1768. HIMES, CHARLES FRANCIS . . .	Oct. 16, 1874,	Carlisle, Pa.
1663. HITCHCOCK, CHARLES HENRY . .	April 15, 1870,	Hanover, N. H.
2040. HOCKLEY, THOMAS	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
2160. HOFFMAN, WALTER J.	Oct. 18, 1889,	Washington. D. C.
1453. HOFMANN, AUGUST WILLIAM. . .	Jan'y 17, 1862,	Berlin, Prussia.
2068. HOLLAND, JAMES W.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1898. HOLMES, OLIVER WENDELL . . .	Jan'y 16, 1880,	Boston, Mass.
1624. HOOKER, JOSEPH D.	Jan'y 15, 1869,	London, England.
1652. HOPPER, EDWARD	Oct. 15, 1869,	Philadelphia.
1607. HORN, GEORGE HENRY	Oct. 16, 1868,	"
2070. HORNER, INMAN.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	"
1257. HORSFORD, EBEN NORTON	Jan'y 19, 1849,	Cambridge, Mass.

	Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1941.	HOTCHKISS, JEDEDIAH.	Oct. 21, 1881,	Staunton, Va.
1696.	HOUGH, GEORGE W.	Jan'y 19, 1872,	Chicago, Ill.
1698.	HOUSTON, EDWIN J.	Jan'y 19, 1872,	Philadelphia.
2143.	HOUSTON, HENRY H	May 20, 1887,	"
2094.	HOVELACQUE, ABEL	May 21, 1886,	Paris, France.
1843.	HUMPHREY, H. C.	July 20, 1877.	
2116.	HUNFALVY, PAUL	Dec. 17, 1886,	Buda-Pesth, Hungary.
1441.	HUNT, THOMAS STERRY	April 19, 1861,	New York, N. Y.
1623.	HUXLEY, THOMAS HENRY	Jan'y 15, 1869,	London, England.
1426.	HYRTLE, JOSEPH.	July 20, 1860,	Vienna, Austria.

I

2052.	IM THURN, EVERARD F.	Oct. 16, 1885,	Georgetown, British Guiana
1773.	INGHAM, WM. ARMSTRONG. . . .	April 16, 1875,	Philadelphia.

J

2010.	JAMES, EDMUND J	April 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1933.	JANNET, CLAUDIO	April 15, 1881,	Paris, France.
2049.	JAYNE, HORACE	Oct. 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1954.	JEFFERIS, WILLIAM W	Jan'y 20, 1882,	"
1942.	JONES, CHARLES C., JR.	Oct. 21, 1881,	Augusta, Ga.
2017.	JORDAN, FRANCIS, JR.	April 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.

K

1989.	KANE, ELISHA KENT.	April 20, 1883,	Kane, Pa.
2169.	KEANE, JOHN J.	Dec. 20, 1889,	Washington, D. C.
1348.	KEATING, WILLIAM V	April 21, 1854,	Philadelphia.
2021.	KEEN, WILLIAM W.	July 18, 1884,	"
1962.	KEIM, GEO. DE BENNEVILLE. . . .	April 21, 1882,	"
2118.	KEIPERT, HENRI.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Berlin, Prussia.
1161.	KENDALL, E. OTIS	Jan'y 21, 1842,	Philadelphia.
1708.	KING, CLARENCE	Oct. 18, 1872,	New York, N. Y.
1537.	KIRK, JOHN FOSTER	July 15, 1864,	Philadelphia.
1284.	KIRKWOOD, DANIEL	April 18, 1851,	Riverside, Cal.
1767.	KÖNIG, GEORGE A	Oct. 16, 1874,	Philadelphia.
1971.	KOPP, HERMANN.	Oct. 20, 1882,	Heidelberg, Germany.
2167.	KRAUSS, FRIEDERICH S	Dec. 20, 1889,	Vienna, Austria.

L

1026.	*Labouderie, J.*	April 19, 1833,	*Paris, France.*
1694.	LAMBERT, GUILLAUME.	Jan'y 19, 1872,	Louvain, Belgium.
1858.	LANDRETH, BURNET.	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Bristol, Pa.
1781.	LANGLEY, SAMUEL P.	April 16, 1775,	Washington, D. C.
1721.	LA ROCHE, C. PERCY	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Rome, Italy.
1334.	LATROBE, JOHN H. B.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Baltimore, Md.
1711.	LAUTH, FRANZ JOSEPH	Oct. 18, 1872,	Munich, Bavaria.
1974.	LAWES, JOHN BENNETT, SIR . . .	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Rothamstead, Herts, Eng.
1595.	LEA, HENRY CHARLES.	Oct. 18, 1867,	Philadelphia.
1738.	LE CONTE, JOHN.	April 18, 1873,	Berkeley, Cal.
1737.	LE CONTE, JOSEPH.	April 18, 1873,	"
1477.	LEE, THOMAS JEFFERSON	Oct. 17, 1862,	Washington, D. C.
2125.	LEEMANS, CONRAD.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Leyden, Holland.
1986.	LEHMAN, AMBROSE E.	April 20, 1883,	Philadelphia.
1263.	LEIDY, JOSEPH.	Oct. 19, 1849,	"
2182.	LELAND, CHARLES G.	May 16, 1890,	London, Eng.
2174.	LE MOINE, J. M.	Dec. 20, 1889,	Quebec, Canada.
1382.	LESLEY, J. PETER	July 13, 1856,	Philadelphia.
1376.	LETCHWORTH, ALBERT S.	Jan'y 18, 1856,	"

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
2085. LEVASSEUR, EMIL	May 21, 1886,	Paris, France.
1415. LEWIS, FRANCIS W.	Jan'y 20, 1860,	Philadelphia.
1953. LEWIS, SAMUEL SAVAGE	Jan'y 20, 1882,	Cambridge, England.
1383. *Leyburn, John.*	July 13, 1856,	*Baltimore, Md.*
1756. LOCKYER, JOSEPH NORMAN.	April 17, 1874,	London, England.
1728. LONGCHAMPS, SELYS DE	April 18, 1873,	Liége, Belgium.
1255. LONGSTRETH, MIERS FISHER	April 21, 1848,	Sharon Hill.
1872. LONGSTRETH, MORRIS	Sept. 20, 1878,	Philadelphia.
1015. *Lorin, Theodore*	April 20, 1832,	*Paris, France.*
1926. LOVERING, JOSEPH.	Jan'y 21, 1881,	Cambridge, Mass.
1977. LOWELL, JAMES RUSSELL	Jan'y 19, 1883,	" "
2019. LUBBOCK, JOHN	July 18, 1884,	London, England.
2008. LUDLOW, WILLIAM.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	U. S. A.
1629. LYMAN, BENJAMIN SMITH	Jan'y 15, 1869,	Philadelphia.

M

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1058. *Macedo, J. L. DaCosta*	April 15, 1836,	*Lisbon, Portugal.*
1994. MAISCH, JOHN M.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1970. MALLERY, GARRICK, JR	Oct. 20, 1882,	Washington, D. C.
2042. MALLET, JOHN WM.	Jan'y 16, 1885,	University of Virginia, Va.
1847. MANSFIELD, IRA FRANKLIN	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Cannelton, Pa.
1857. MARCH, FRANCIS ANDREW	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Easton, Pa.
1861. MARKS, WILLIAM D	May 3, 1878,	Philadelphia.
1604. MARSH, OTHNIEL C	Oct. 16, 1868.	New Haven, Conn.
2078. MARSHALL, JOHN	May 21, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1922. MARTINDALE, ISAAC C	Oct. 15, 1880,	Camden, N. J.
1018. *Martinez, Juan José*	April 20, 1832,	*Spain.*
1885. MARTINS, CHARLES.	July 18, 1879,	Montpellier, France.
2184. MASCART, E.	Dec. 19, 1890,	Paris, France.
1572. MASON, ANDREW	Jan'y 18, 1867,	New York, N. Y.
1929. MAY, ADDISON.	Jan'y 21, 1881,	West Chester, Pa.
1654. MAYER, ALFRED M	Oct. 15, 1869,	Hoboken, N. J.
2107. MCALISTER, JAMES	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1928. MCCAULEY, EDWARD Y	Jan'y 21, 1881,	"
1685. MCCOSH, JAMES	April 21, 1871,	
1838. MCCREATH, ANDREW S.	July 18, 1879,	Harrisburg, Pa.
1821. MCKEAN, WILLIAM V.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Philadelphia.
2004. MCMASTER, JOHN BACH	Jan y 18, 1884,	"
1677. MEEHAN, THOMAS	Jan'y 20, 1871,	"
1335. MEIGS, MONTGOMERY C	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Washington, D. C.
1903. MERRICK, JOHN VAUGHAN	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1947. MERRIMAN, MANSFIELD	Oct. 21, 1881,	Bethlehem, Pa.
1744. MESSCHERT, MATHEW HUIZINGA.	Oct. 17, 1873,	Douglassville, Pa.
2142. MICHAEL, HELEN ABBOTT.	May 20, 1887,	Philadelphia.
2175. MITCHELL, JAMES T.	Feb. 21, 1890,	"
1461. MITCHELL, S. WEIR	Jan'y 17, 1862,	"
1735. MOMMSEN, THEODORE	April 18, 1873,	Berlin, Prussia.
2114. MONIER-WILLIAMS, MONIER	Dec. 17, 1886,	London, England.
1791. MOORE, GIDEON E	Oct. 15, 1875,	New York, N. Y.
2029. MOORE, JAMES W	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Easton, Pa.
1841. MOREHOUSE, GEORGE R	April 20, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1054. *Morelli.*	Jan'y 15, 1836,	*Naples, Italy.*
1976. MORRIS, J. CHESTON.	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Philadelphia.
1577. MORTON, HENRY	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Hoboken N. J.
2121. MUCH, MATTHÆUS.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Vienna, Austria.
1866. MUHLENBERG, F. A.	Sept. 20, 1878,	Philadelphia.
2120. MUELLER, FRIEDERICH	Dec. 17, 1886,	Vienna, Austria.

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1486. MUELLER, F. MAX	Jan'y 16, 1863,	Oxford, England.
1892. MUONI, DAMIANO	Jan'y 16, 1880,	Milan, Italy.
2062. MURDOCK, J. B.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	U. S. Navy.
1937. MURRAY, JAMES A. H.	April 15, 1881,	Oxford, England.

N

2087. NADAILLAC, MARQUIS DE	May 21, 1886,	Paris, France.
1575. NEWBERRY, JOHN S.	Jan'y 18, 1867,	New York, N. Y.
1852. NEWCOMB, SIMON	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Washington, D. C.
1582. NEWTON, HUBERT ANSON	April 19, 1869,	New Haven, Conn.
1703. NICHOLS, STARR HOYT	July 19, 1872,	New York, N. Y.
2060. NIKITIN, SERGE	Feb'y 19, 1866,	St. Petersburg, Russia.
1805. NORDENSKIÖLD, ADOLF ERIC	April 21, 1876,	Stockholm, Sweden.
1712. NORRIS, ISAAC, JR.	Oct. 18, 1872,	Philadelphia.
2106. NORRIS, WILLIAM F.	Dec. 17, 1886,	"
2046. NORTH, EDWARD	Oct. 16, 1885,	Clinton, N. Y.

O

2072. OLIVER, CHARLES A.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1715. OLIVER, JAMES E.	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Ithaca, N. Y.
2135. OSBORN, HENRY F.	Feb'y 18, 1887,	Princeton, N. J.
1581. OSBORN, HENRY S.	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Oxford, O.
2039. OSLER, WILLIAM	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Baltimore, Md.
1801. OWEN, P. CUNLIFFE, SIR	April 21, 1876,	London, England.
1212. OWEN, RICHARD	Jan'y 17, 1845,	" "

P

1868. PACKARD, A. S., JR.	Sept. 20, 1878,	Providence, R. I.
1578. PACKARD, JOHN H.	Jan'y 18, 1867,	Philadelphia.
1331. PAGET, JAMES, SIR.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	London, England.
1984. PANCOAST, WILLIAM HENRY	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Philadelphia.
1593. PARDEE, ARIO	Oct. 18, 1867,	Hazleton, Pa.
1673. PARIEU, ESQUIRON DE	Jan'y 20, 1871,	Paris, France.
2036. PARVIN, THEOPHILUS	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
2056. PASTEUR, LOUIS	Oct. 16, 1885,	Paris, France.
2035. PATTERSON, C. STUART	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1282. PATTERSON, ROBERT	April 18, 1851,	"
1320. *Patterson, Thomas L.*	April 15, 1853.	*Cumberland, Md.*
1772. PEARSE, JOHN B.	Jan'y 15, 1875.	Boston, Mass.
1722. PEMBERTON, HENRY	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Philadelphia.
2104. PEÑAFIEL, ANTONIO	May 21, 1886,	Berlin, Prussia.
1777. PENINGTON, EDWARD	April 16, 1875,	Philadelphia.
2073. PENNYPACKER, SAMUEL W.	May 21, 1886,	"
1518. PENROSE, R. A. F.	July 17, 1863,	"
2059. PEPPER, EDWARD	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Paris.
1666. PEPPER, WILLIAM	July 15, 1870,	Philadelphia.
951. *Pereira, José Maria Dantes*	April 18, 1828,	*Lisbon, Portugal.*
1705. PETER, ROBERT	July 19, 1872,	Lexington, Ky.
1824. PHILLIPS, HENRY, JR.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1859. PIERCE, C. NEWLIN	May 3, 1878,	"
1760. PLATT, FRANKLIN	July 17, 1874,	Philadelphia.
2127. PLATZMAN, JULIUS	Dec. 17, 1886,	Leipzig, Germany.
2053. POMIALOWSKY, JOHN	Oct. 16, 1885,	St. Petersburg, Russia.
1539. PORTER, THOMAS CONRAD	Oct. 21, 1864,	Easton, Pa.
2044. POTTS, WILLIAM JOHN	Oct. 16, 1885,	Camden, N. J.
2097. POSTGATE, J. P	May 21, 1886,	Cambridge, England.
1216. *Poussin, William Tell*	Jan'y 17, 1882,	*Paris, France.*

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
2161. POWELL, J. W.	Oct. 18, 1889,	Washington, D. C.
1619. PRESTWICH, JOSEPH	Jan'y 15, 1869,	Shoreham, England.
1592. PRICE, J. SERGEANT	Oct. 18, 1867,	Philadelphia.
1780. PRIME, FREDERICK, JR	April 16, 1875,	"
2088. PULZSKY, FRANCIS	May 21, 1886,	Buda-Pesth, Hungary.
1758. PUMPELLY, RAPHAEL	April 17, 1874,	Newport, R. I.
	Q	
973. *Quadrada, Francisco de Paolo* . .	Oct. 16, 1829,	*Madrid, Spain.*
1143. *Quaranta, Barnardo*.	Jan'y 15, 1841,	*Naples, Italy.*
	R	
1448. RAMSAY, ANDREW C.	Jan'y 17, 1862,	London, England.
1736. RAND, THEODORE D.	April 18, 1873,	Philadelphia.
1849. RANDALL, F. A.	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Warren, Pa.
1644. RAWLINSON, GEORGE.	Oct. 15, 1869,	Oxford, England.
1765. RAWSON, RAWSON W	Oct. 16, 1874,	London, "
2099. RAYLEIGH, LORD	May 21, 1886,	Essex, England.
1784. RAYMOND, ROSSITTER W	April 16, 1875,	New York, N. Y.
1585. RAYNOLDS, WILLIAM F.	April 19, 1867,	Detroit, Mich.
1591. READ, JOHN MEREDITH	July 19, 1867.	
2077. REED, HENRY	May 21, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1842. REED, THOMAS B	April 20, 1877,	"
1889. REMSEN, IRA	July 18, 1879,	Baltimore, Md.
1485. RENAN, ERNEST	Jan'y 16, 1863,	Paris, France.
1948. RENARD, A	Oct. 21, 1881,	Brussels, Belgium.
1343. RENARD, CHARLES	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Moscow, Russia.
1890. RENEVIERS, E	July 18, 1879,	Lausanne, Switzerland.
1816. REULEAUX, F.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Berlin, Prussia.
2122. RÉVILLE, ALBERT	Dec. 17, 1886,	Paris, France.
1500. RICHARDSON, BEN. WARD	April 17, 1863,	London, England.
1808. RILEY, CHARLES V	April 21, 1876,	Washington, D. C.
1957. ROBINS, JAMES M	April 21, 1882,	Philadelphia.
1025. ROBINSON, MONCURE	Jan'y 18, 1833,	"
1364. *Rogers, E. P*	April 20, 1855.	
1390. ROGERS, FAIRMAN.	Jan'y 16, 1857,	Newport, R. I.
2177. ROGERS, ROBERT W	Feb. 21, 1890,	Carlisle, Pa.
1906. ROGERS, WILLIAM B., JR	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1462. RÖHRIG, F. L. O.	April 18, 1862,	Los Angeles, Cal.
2050. ROLLETT, HERMANN	Oct. 16, 1885,	Vienna, Austria.
1907. ROOD, OGDEN N	April 16, 1880,	New York, N. Y.
1732. ROSSI, GIOVANNI BATTISTA. . . .	April 18, 1873,	Rome, Italy.
1718. ROTHERMEL, PETER F.	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Limerick P. O., Pa.
1838. ROTHROCK, JOSEPH T.	April 20, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1264. RUSCHENBERGER, WM. S. W.. . .	Oct. 19, 1849,	"
1620. RUTIMEYER, CARL L.	Jan'y 15, 1869,	Basel, Switzerland.
2109. RYDER, JOHN A	Dec. 17, 1886,	Philadelphia.
	S	
1766. SADTLER, SAMUEL PHILIP	Oct. 16, 1874,	Philadelphia.
2148. SAJOUS, CHARLES E.	Feb'y 17, 1888,	"
2103. SANCHEZ, JESUS	May 21, 1886,	Mexico, Mexico.
1563. SANDBERGER, FRIDOLIN	April 20, 1866,	Würtzburg, Bavaria.
1033. *Santarem, Viscount*.	July 19, 1833,	*Lisbon, Portugal.*
1958. SARGENT, CHARLES SPRAGUE . .	April 21, 1882,	Brookline, Mass.
1730. SAUSSURE, HENRI DE.	April 18, 1873,	Geneva, Switzerland.
1877. SCHORLEMMER, C.	Oct. 18, 1878,	Manchester, England.

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1498. SCHOTT, CHARLES ANTHONY . . .	April 17, 1863,	Washington, D. C.
1864. SCHURZ, CARL	Sept. 20, 1878.	
1725. SCLATER, PHILLIP LUTLEY. . . .	April 18, 1873,	London, England.
1919. SCOTT, LEWIS A.	Oct. 15, 1880,	Philadelphia.
2112. SCOTT, W. H.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Princeton, N. J.
1870. SCUDDER, SAMUEL HUBBARD. . .	Sept. 20, 1878,	Cambridge, Mass.
1656. SEIDENSTICKER, OSWALD	Jan'y 21, 1870,	Philadelphia.
1883. SEILER, CARL	April 18, 1879,	"
1704. SELLERS, COLEMAN	July 19, 1872,	"
1533. SELLERS, WILLIAM.	April 15, 1864,	"
1770. SELWYN, ALFRED R. C.	Oct. 16, 1874,	Montreal, Canada.
1333. SEQUARD, E. BROWN.	Jan'y 20, 1854,	Paris, France.
2057. SERGI, GIUSEPPE.	Oct. 16, 1885,	Rome, Italy.
1965. SÈVE DE BAR, EDOUARD	July 21, 1882,	Brussels, Belgium.
2076. SHARP, BENJAMIN.	May 21, 1886,	Philadelphia.
1944. SHARPLES, PHILIP PRICE	Oct. 21, 1881,	West Chester Pa.
1960. SHARPLES, STEPHEN PASCHALL. .	April 21, 1882,	Boston, Mass.
2002. SHARPLESS, ISAAC	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Haverford, Pa.
1514. SHEAFER, PETER WENRICH . . .	July 17, 1863,	Pottsville, Pa.
1792. SHEPPARD, FURMAN.	Oct. 15, 1875,	Philadelphia.
1797. SHERWOOD, ANDREW	Oct. 15, 1875,	Mansfield, Pa.
1822. SHIELDS, CHARLES W.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Princeton, N. J.
1532. *Shinz, Carl*.	April 15, 1864,	*Strasburg, Germany*. (?)
2124. SIMÉON, REMI	Dec. 17, 1886,	Paris, France.
1414. SMITH, AUBREY H..	Jan'y 20, 1860,	Philadelphia.
2146. SMITH, EDGAR F.	Oct. 21, 1887,	"
1544. SMITH, GOLDWIN.	Jan'y 20, 1865.	
1789. SMITH, STEPHEN	Oct. 15, 1875,	New York, N. Y.
2141. SMYTH, ALBERT H.	May 20, 1887,	Philadelphia.
1742. SNOWDEN, A. LOUDON	Oct. 17, 1873,	"
2009. SNYDER, MONROE B..	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1720. SPOFFORD, A. H..	Jan'y 17, 1873,	Washington, D. C.
1949. STALLO, JOHN B..	Oct. 21, 1881,	Cincinnati, O.
1446. STEENSTRUP, J. J. S.	Jan'y 17, 1862,	Copenhagen, Denmark.
1990. STEVENS, WALTER LECONTE . . .	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
1840. STEVENSON, JOHN JAMES.	April 20, 1877,	New York, N. Y.
2168. STOKES, SIR GEORGE G.	Dec. 20, 1889,	London, England.
1167. STORER, D. HUMPHREYS	April 15, 1842,	Boston, Mass.
1834. STRAWBRIDGE, GEORGE	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1559. STRONG, WILLIAM	Jan'y 19, 1866,	Washington, D. C.
1820. STUART, GEORGE.	Feb'y 2, 1877,	Philadelphia.
1527. STUDER, BERNARD.	April 15, 1864,	Berne, Switzerland.
2093. STUER, DIONYS.	May 21, 1886,	Vienna, Austria.
2094. SUESS, EDWARD	May 21, 1886,	" "
2023. SYLE, E. W.	July 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1844. SYLVESTER, J. J..	July 20, 1877,	Oxford, England.
2092. SZOMBATHY, JOSEF.	May 21, 1886,	Vienna, Austria.

T

1786. TATHAM, WILLIAM P.	April 16, 1875,	Philadelphia.
1846. TAYLOR, WILLIAM B.	Oct. 19, 1877,	Washington, D. C.
2098. TEMPLE, RICHARD CARNAC . . .	May 21, 1886,	Upper Burmah, India.
2006. THOMAS, ALLEN C..	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Haverford, Pa.
1807. THOMPSON, ELIHU	April 21, 1876,	Lynn, Mass.
1993. THOMPSON, HEBER S.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Pottsville, Pa.
1726. THOMPSON, HENRY.	April 18, 1873,	London, England.

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
1755. THOMPSON, ROBERT ELLIS	April 17, 1874,	Philadelphia.
1754. THOMSON, FRANK	April 17, 1874,	Philadelphia.
1723. THOMSON, WILLIAM	April 18, 1873,	London, England.
1909. THOMSON, WILLIAM	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1530. THURY, A.	April 15, 1864,	Geneva, Switzerland.
1688. TILGHMAN, BENJAMIN C	July 21, 1871,	Philadelphia.
1233. TILGHMAN, RICHARD A	April 16, 1847,	"
1657. TILGHMAN, WILLIAM M.	Jan'y 21, 1870,	"
2176. TIMMINS, SAMUEL	Feb. 21, 1890,	Arley, near Coventry, Eng
2123. TOPINARD, PAUL.	Dec. 17, 1886,	Paris, France.
2065. TOPPAN, ROBERT NOXON.	Feb'y 19, 1886,	Cambridge, Mass.
1597. TOWNSEND, JOSEPH B	Jan'y 17, 1868,	Philadelphia.
1955. TOWNSEND, WASHINGTON	Jan'y 20, 1882,	West Chester, Pa.
1691. TROWBRIDGE, WILLIAM P	Jan'y 19, 1872,	New York, N. Y.
2024. TRUMBULL, HENRY CLAY	July 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1973. TSCHERMAK, GUSTAF	Oct. 20, 1882,	Vienna, Austria.
9183. TURRETTINI, THEODORE.	Dec. 19, 1890,	Geneva, Switzerland.
2166. TUTTLE, DAVID K	Oct. 18, 1889,	Philadelphia.
2163. TYLER, LYON G	Oct. 18, 1889,	Williamsburg, Va.
1529. TUNNER, PETER	April 15, 1864,	Leoben, Austria.
1602. TYNDALL, JOHN	April 17, 1868,	London, England.
2138] TYSON, JAMES	May 20, 1887,	Philadelphia.

U

2185. UNWIN, WILLIAM C	Dec. 19, 1890,	London, England.

V

2000. VAUX, RICHARD.	Jan'y 18, 1884,	Philadelphia.
1475. VIRCHOW, RUDOLPH.	Oct. 17, 1862,	Berlin, Prussia.
1646. VOGT, CARL	Oct. 15, 1869,	Geneva, Switzerland
2115. VON MELTZEL, HUGO	Dec. 17, 1886,	Koloszvar, Hungary.
1670. VOSE, GEORGE LEONARD.	Oct. 21, 1870,	Boston, Mass.
2186. VOSSION, LOUIS	Dec. 19, 1890,	Philadelphia.

W

2034. WAGNER, SAMUEL	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1748. WAHL, WILLIAM H.	Jan'y 16, 1874,	"
1724. WALLACE, ALFRED R	April 18, 1873,	Croydon, England.
2156. WARD, LESTER F.	May 17, 1889,	Washington, D. C.
2179. WAYLAND, HEMAN L.	May 16, 1890,	Philadelphia.
2033. WEIL, EDWARD HENRY	Jan'y 16, 1885,	"
2117. WEIL, G	Dec. 17, 1886,	Heidelberg, Germany.
2028. WEISBACH, ALBIN	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Freiburg, Saxony.
1975. WESTWOOD, JOHN O	Jan'y 19, 1883,	Oxford, England.
1639. WHARTON, JOSEPH.	April 16, 1869,	Philadelphia.
1637. WHITE, ANDREW D.	April 16, 1869,	Ithaca, N. Y.
1818. WHITE, I. C	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Morgantown, W. Va.
1487. WHITNEY, JOSIAH DWIGHT . . .	Jan'y 16, 1863,	Cambridge, Mass.
1502. WHITNEY, WILLIAM DWIGHT. . .	April 17, 1863,	New Haven, Conn.
1659. WHITTIER, JOHN GREENLEAF . .	Jan'y 21, 1870,	Amesbury, Mass.
1863. WILDER, BURT GREEN	May 3, 1878,	Ithaca, N. Y.
2151. WILLIAMS, TALCOTT	May 18, 1888,	Philadelphia.
2178. WILLIS HENRY.	Feb. 21, 1890,	"
1489. WILSON, DANIEL.	Jan'y 16, 1863,	Toronto, Canada.
2150. WILSON, EDMUND B	Feb'y 17, 1888,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
2041. WILSON, JAMES C.	Jan'y 16, 1885,	Philadelphia.
1747. WILSON, JOSEPH M.	Jan'y 16, 1874,	"

Name.	Date of Election.	Present Address.
2137. WILSON, WILLIAM POWELL . . .	May 20, 1887,	Philadelphia.
1545. WINCHELL, ALEXANDER.	Jan'y 20, 1865,	Ann Arbor, Mich.
1896. WINTHROP, ROBERT C.	Jan'y 16, 1880,	Boston, Mass.
2140. WIREMAN, HENRY D.	May 20, 1887,	Philadelphia.
1561. WISTER, OWEN JONES	April 20, 1866,	"
1884. WOOD, RICHARD.	April 18, 1879,	"
1762. WOODWARD, HENRY.	July 17, 1874,	London, England.
1751. WOOTTEN, J. E..	Jan'y 16, 1874,	Reading, Pa.
1854. WORMLEY, THEODORE G.	Jan'y 18, 1878,	Philadelphia.
1932. WURTS, CHARLES STEWART . . .	Jan'y 21, 1881,	Philadelphia.
2061. WYCKOFF, A. B..	Feb'y 19, 1886,	U. S. Navy.

Y

1904. YARNALL, ELLIS	April 16, 1880,	Philadelphia.
1759. YOUNG, CHARLES AUGUSTUS . . .	April 17, 1874,	Princeton, N. J.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA

FOR

PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

Vol. XXIX.

JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1891.

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AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

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VOL. XXIX. JANUARY TO JUNE, 1891. No. 135.

Vocabularies from the Musquito Coast.

By Daniel G. Brinton, M.D.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 6, 1891.*)

Through the kindness of the Rev. W. Siebärger, a missionary of the United Brethren, now resident on the Musquito coast, I have obtained several new vocabularies from that region, which offer points of interest to the ethnologist.

The most important of these is a list of words from the language of the Ramas tribe, the first and only specimen of their tongue that I have encountered. These people live on a small island in Blewfield lagoon. They number at present about two hundred and fifty souls, all of whom have been converted to Christianity, and all of them are able to speak and read English except a few very old persons. Their native tongue is rapidly disappearing, and in a few years, probably, no one will be left able to use it fluently and correctly.

In physique they are described as large and strongly built; in temperament, submissive and teachable.

Their language has always been reported as wholly different from that of the Musquito Indians, who occupy the adjacent mainland, and this is shown to be correct by the specimen sent me. It bears, in fact, no relation to any other tongue along the Musquito coast. It does not, however, stand alone, constituting an independent stock, but is clearly a branch, not very remote, of a family of languages once spoken near Chiriqui lagoon, and thence across to the Pacific, or nearly that far.

To this stock I have, in my classification of American languages

assigned the name "Changuina," from its principal member, the Changuinas, who resided on the river of that name flowing into Chiriqui lagoon. It is said that some few villages of the stock may still be found about the headwaters of this stream.

My chief source of information about this family is derived from the small work of A. L. Pinart, published in Paris last year, entitled *Vocabulario Castellano-Dorasque, Dialectos Chumulu, Gualaca y Changuina.* M. Pinart knew of no members of the stock north of the Chiriqui lagoon, though Blewfields is more than two hundred miles to the north of it.

The following is the list of the words sent me. The orthography is German.

	Rama.		Rama.
Man,	*nikikna.*	Tongue,	*kup.*
Woman,	*kuma.*	Tooth,	*siik.*
Sun,	*nunik.*	Hand,	*kuik.*
Moon,	*tukan.*	Foot,	*kaat.*
Fire,	*abung.*	House,	*knu.*
Water,	*sii.*	1,	*saiming.*
Head,	*kiing.*	2,	*puk sak.*
Eye,	*up.*	3,	*pang sak.*
Ear,	*kuka.*	4,	*kun kun beiso.*
Mouth,	*kaka.*	5,	*kwik astar.*
Nose,	*taik.*		

Of these the subjoined present more or less distinct Changuina analogies:

	Rama.	Changuina.
Sun,	*nunik,*	*kelik-u.*
Fire,	*abung,*	*kebug-al* (fire-brand).
Water,	*sii,*	*si.*
Head,	*kiing,*	*kin-unuma.*
Ear,	*kuka,*	*kuga.*
Mouth,	*kaka,*	*kaga.*
Nose,	*taik,*	*θakai.*
Tongue,	*kup,*	*kuba.*
Tooth,	*siik,*	*su.*
Hand,	*kuik,*	*kula, kuluk.*
House,	*knu,*	*ku.*
One,	*saiming,*	*umai.*

The words for man and woman, ***nik-ikna*** and ***ku-ma,*** may have been borrowed from the Musquito, ***wa-ikna*** and ***ma-iren.***

The numerals in the Changuina stock appear not to have been

well defined, as they differ in all three dialects. The Changuina proper helps itself out with the Spanish: *umai*, one; *umai-dos*, two; *umai-tres*, three. The Gualaca dialect has *ku-e*, one; *ku-mat*, two; *ku-mas*, three. In both, "five" is "*kul-male*," a hand, which corresponds to the Rama *kwik-astar*.

The Rama words for "two" and "three," *puk-sak*, *pang-sak*, belong to a series of numerals which had an extensive adoption by several diverse families in Guatemala and Costa Rica, and probably are of South American origin. They are distinctly traceable to the Cuna or Darien language, in which we have, 2, *pok'-ua*, 3, *pak'-ua*, and these reappear in the Guatuso of Nicaragua. This is evidence that the Ramas reached their island after they had adopted these Cuna words. This was probably after the Conquest. We know that in 1674–81, the Governor of Costa Rica, Don Juan Francisco Saenz Vasquez, marched against the Changuinas on account of their turbulent character, and severely punished them. Perhaps at this time the Ramas entered their canoes and sought refuge along the coast, far to the north of their ancient seats.

My informant adds a few words of the Cuna or San Blas language, picked up by him on the coast, as follows:

	SAN BLAS.		SAN BLAS.
Man,	*tula, siradi.*	Foot,	*naga.*
Woman,	*hoam.*	1,	*kuenohikua.*
Sun,	*tata.*	2,	*pogua.*
Moon,	*nu.*	3,	*pagua.*
Eye,	*ibia.*	4,	*pakawa.*
Ear,	*auar.*	5,	*atali.*
Hand,	*aregena.*		

Comparing this with the *Vocabulario Castellano-Cuna*, of A. L. Pinart (Paris, 1890), it appears to be a tolerably pure dialect of the tongue.

Mr. Siebärger also furnishes a vocabulary from the Twaka Indians. These natives live in a number of scattered hamlets about the headwaters of the Tungla or Princeapula rivers. The latter name is a compound of "Prinzo," the name of a tribe, and the Musquito *auala*, river.

From an inspection of the list, it is clear that they belong to the extensive Ulva stock, as I have assigned them from previous evidence in my classification of "The American Race." *

* *The American Race: A Linguistic Classification and Ethnographic Description of the Native Tribes of North and South America* (New York, 1891).

	Twaka.		Twaka.
Man,	*all.*	Tongue,	*taki.*
Men,	*mui.*	Hand,	*tingki*, or *tingma.*
Woman,	*yall, wana.*	Foot,	*kallni.*
Sun,	*ma.*	House,	*honi.*
Moon,	*waiku.*	Hill,	*assam.*
Star,	*yalla.*	1,	*as.*
Earth,	*sau.*	2,	*bo.*
Sea,	*kuma.*	3,	*bass.*
Fire,	*ku.*	4,	*araunka.*
Water,	*wass.*	5,	*singka.*
Head,	*tunuk.*	6,	*tiesko-as.*
Eye,	*makpa.*	7,	*tiesko-bo.*
Ear,	*tappan.*	8,	*tiesko-bass.*
Nose,	*nanglak.*	9,	*tiesko-araunka.*
Tooth,	*annak.*	10,	*sullap.*
Mouth,	*matikpas.*		

The word *tiesko* in the numerals 6, 7, 8, 9, is explained as a form of *tingki*, "hand." The numeral for "five," *singka*, sounds suspiciously like the Spanish *cinco;* but I find it also in other Ulva dialects. For "twenty" the Twaka expression is *mui aslui*, "the man one time," *i.e.*, all the fingers and toes counted at once.

Their expression of welcome, "How are you?" is *parrasta*, which explains the name of the Parrastahs, a tribe on the Rio Mico, belonging to the Ulva stock.

The plural suffix is *balna*.

Their term for God, or the Supreme Deity, is *Ma papangki*, "Sun-father," which indicates that they are, or were, sun-worshipers.

The Twakas locate the seat of man's life and emotions, not in the heart, as most nations, but in the liver; and they have in common use such expressions as:

issing sawram,	liver split = angry.
issing pini,	liver white = kind.
issing sani,	liver black = unkind.

In this they differ from their neighbors, the Musquitos, who employ in such expressions the word *kupia*, heart.

On a New Species of Atalapha.

By Harrison Allen, M.D.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, January 16, 1891.)

ATALAPHA TELIOTIS, sp. nov.

Ears rounded much smaller than head. The internal basal lobe longer than broad, and without posterior projection. The external basal lobe longer than high, without notch at the base anteriorly. The hem occupying notch is half the height of the auricle and is ample. The tragus is coarsely crenulate on the outer border, slightly narrowed at the tip, which is not turned forward. The external surface is without a trace of ridge, and the notch at the base above the small basal lobe without a tubercle. Snout and lower lip quite as in other species of the genus, except that the chin-plate is somewhat wider.

Skull with groove on centre of face-vertex continuous with the anterior nasal aperture. Sagittal temporal ridge sinuate. The first upper premolar exceedingly minute, scarcely half the size of the corresponding tooth in other species; it can with difficulty be seen even with the aid of a lens. The lower premolars are nearer of a size than is the case in other species, the first being fully half the size of the second. The third lower incisor is rounded, minute, and without cuspules.

The membranes are much as in *A. noveboracensis*, but the terminal phalanx of the fifth finger is longer, and ends with a free end on the margin of the endopatagium. The membranes are attached to the foot at a point midway between ankle and the base of the toes.

The prevalent color of the hair is dark chestnut above, but lighter below. The base on the body is everywhere black, and the shafts buff. No ashy tips are anywhere seen. The ventral half of the side of neck is white. The hair is scanty along the ventral surface of the forearm and the proximal ends of the last three metacarpals. The dorsum of the interfemoral membrane is furred only at the basal third. The remaining characters as in *A. noveboracensis*.

This species is readily distinguished by the shape and small size of the ear and tragus, by the attachment of the wing-membrane to the foot, and by the peculiarities of the premolars in both jaws, as well as those of the third lower incisors. It agrees with a southern variety of *A. noveboracensis* (*A. frankii*) in the partially free dorsal surface of the interfemoral membrane.

The specimen was forwarded to me by Mr. J. G. Cooper, of the California Academy of Natural Science, in a bottle containing an example of *A. noveboracensis*, and it resembles this form so closely in coloration that at first I mistook it for an immature example of the species last named.

The specimen is in poor condition. After decomposition had set in, it had been preserved for a long time in strong alcohol.

Habitat unknown. but it is probably Southern California.

Measurements.

Head and body (from crown of head to base of tail)		38	mm.
Length of arm		22	"
" forearm		37	"
1st digit	Length of first metacarpal bone	2	"
	" first phalanx	4	"
2d digit	Length of second metacarpal bone	40	"
	" first phalanx	6	"
3d digit	Length of third metacarpal bone	40	"
	" first phalanx	14	"
	" second phalanx	15	"
	" third phalanx	2½	"
4th digit	Length of fourth metacarpal bone	38	"
	" first phalanx	10	"
	" second phalanx	8	"
5th digit	Length of fifth metacarpal bone	32	"
	" first phalanx	7	"
	" second phalanx	7	"
Length of head		12	"
Height of ear from head		4	"
" " base of external lobe to tip		6	"
" tragus		3	"
Length of thigh		14	"
" leg		16	"
" foot		6	"
" tail		39	"
Width 2d interdigital interspace		2	"
" 3d " "		10	"
" 4th " "		28	"
Difference between 3d and 4th interspace		18	"
Length of forearm		37	"

Thus the manal formula is 2–10–28–37, the difference between the third and fourth interdigital interspace 18, and is much the same as in *A. noveboracensis.*

The measurements of the body and of the metacarpals are within the range of these which can be made on specimens of *A. noveboracensis.* The second phalanx of the third finger is longer than the second; the second phalanx of the fourth finger is much shorter than the first; the second phalanx of the fifth finger is of the same length as the first. In these respects the measurements are in contrast with those of *A. novebora-*

censis. The thigh is shorter than the leg, while both are smaller than is the species named. The foot is shorter, while the tail is slightly longer.

Atalapha is the most aberrant of any of the genera of the Vespertilionidæ, as this family is at present defined. It presents features in common with the Emballonuridæ, the Molossi and the Phyllostomidæ. These remarks are appropriate at this place, since in *A. teliotis* the general plan of the ear is as in Emballonuridæ; the shape of the wing, especially as to the strength of the first metacarpal bone, the shortness of the fifth metacarpal bone as compared to others of its series, the rigidity of the phalanges of the fifth digit, the arrangement of the lines in the fourth interdigital space, the flexibility of the lips, the great height of the internal tuberosity and of the length of the epicondyle of the humerus, the reverted distal ulnar rudiment, the posterior deviation of the coracoid process, the presence of a distinct lateral lobe to the cerebellum, the number of the upper incisors (being restricted to two), and the general shape of the wing are as in Molossi; while the complete tympanic bone (forming a ring at the upper margin), the pisiform bone being palmad and articulating with the fifth metacarpal bone, the palmad distinctness of the metacarpal bones, the shapes and relative proportions of the ectoturbinals, the presence of numerous vertical raised muscle-bands on the endopatagium, the angle of the lower jaw not being deflected, but remaining in axial line with that of the horizontal ramus, the genus resemble the true Phyllostomidæ.

Notes on Hebrew Phonetics. By J. Cheston Morris, A.M., M.D.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 6, 1891.)

It might seem extremely rash for one whose acquaintance with Hebrew scarcely extends to a knowledge of its letters to offer any observations upon them in the presence of those who have made an exhaustive study of the subject; yet I do so, as thinking that one who occupies "the room of the unlearned," and is looking at the matter from a distance rather than from the dust-obscured atmosphere of the conflict of opinions, may offer some hints which may prove of value, even though they may not be wholly new.

In commencing the study of Hebrew characters, one is struck with two facts: 1. That there is said to be no character representing a pure vowel sound. This, I believe, is not the case with any other known alphabet. 2. That a change was made during the Babylonian captivity of the Jews, substituting the present square characters for the more ancient form. Let us inquire, first, why this was probably done. At this time the sacred records were subjected to inspection of their conquerors, containing, as they certainly did, many things which would be more or less offensive to them, and calculated to cast ridicule if not bring persecution upon the ex-

iles. What more natural than for those who had charge of these records to endeavor to conceal their contents by such a veil as opportunity afforded, viz., that the ancient phonetic value of the letters had been lost and the meaning of the words so obscured that only those initiated by long study of the Jewish sacred mysteries and traditions could read them? In this way we have accounted for the rise of the school of the Talmudists, the study of the Mishna and Gemara, and the origin of the Kabbala. No word was to be pronounced as written; it had an inscrutable meaning only to be learned by the initiated and transmitted by the use of points added to the letters. Add to this the inherent difficulty of representing the sounds of any people in the vocabulary of another race; as instances of this, take the substitution of "l" for "r" by the Chinese in learning English, or the difficulty a Frenchman or German has in acquiring our "th," or the Greek θ; or, as more to the point, the substitution by the uneducated German Jew of "sh" for pure "s." There is something in the physical structure of the vocal organs of each race which is reflected in the vocables used by it. In the Hebrew race as met with to-day this ringing nasal character strikes us all forcibly.

After these introductory thoughts, we are struck with the fact that one of their Hebrew letters, the ע, *ngain*, is so variously pronounced as to make one seriously question its true phonetic value. Its place in the order of the alphabet, as compared with the Phœnician and Greek, is that of the Greek *omicron;* its form in Phœnician and in the old Samaritan is o. In many Hebrew dictionaries this value is given it. Take, again, the ו, *vau*, its place that of the Greek F, *digamma*, its phonetic value that of the Latin v, or English ou. May not our double u, *w*, represent this, as well as the German v, *fow?* The sound of ק, *quof*, is lost to Western languages, except so far as represented by *q*, to which we add a *u* to make it vocable to us. The letters ס, *samech*, and שׁ, *shin*, are represented by the Greek σ, *sigma*, and ξ, *xi*, but are found in an inverted order in the alphabet. [The confusion between these letters goes back to a far earlier period when we find two of the Hebrew tribes disputing over Shibboleth or Sibboleth.]

But the very first letter is a vocable which in all other alphabets is considered a pure vowel sound, a; the fifth, *he*, is another, ĕ; the sixth, *chayt*, is ē, or ch; the tenth, *yod*, is i, *iota;* and, as above, *vau* = ou, or u (or sometimes f or v), and *ngain* = o. We have thus all our usual vowel sounds except y, which we know in French as *ygrec*, and substitute usually for the Greek *upsilon*. In Hebrew we have two sibilants, *zain* and *tsaddi*, the latter of which occupies the alphabetical position in Greek of *upsilon*. If we now try to substitute in Hebrew, as ordinarily written, the above values for the letters, we shall find we have a perfectly vocable language. The names of men and places are given not very differently from our modern pronunciation of them as elucidated by the pointed Hebrew, when allowance is made for the difference due, as above stated, to racial intonation.

In some instances, two or three consonants are found together, but these may be regarded as familiar abbreviations for well-known words, just as D. L. W. means for us Delaware, Lackawanna and Western R. R., etc. In this way we may find that the Hebrew is really no exception as regards the presence of characters indicating pure vowel sounds; and, indeed, we have the authority of Josephus for the statement that it does. Chief among the words whose pronunciation was to be hidden was the name of the Deity—it was forbidden—and many, long, and bitter have been the controversies as to the true pronunciation of יהוה, *yod, hay, vau, hay.* Josephus says it was composed of four vowels.* He was a priest, and also well versed in Greek and Roman literature, and we may well accept his statement as reflecting the best learning of his times on Jewish matters. It seems to me that this ought to settle the question.

As to the consequences which would follow from such a view, I must leave them to those more competent to follow them out. It seems, however, to me that we would thus have better opportunities of comparing the Hebrew sacred records with those of all other ancient nations, and of clearing up much obscurity in ancient history and geography.

I would therefore suggest the following phonetic values :

א	$= \alpha =$ a	ל	$= \lambda =$ l
ב	$= \beta =$ b	מ. ם final	$= \mu =$ m
ג	$= \gamma =$ g	נ ן final	$= \nu =$ n
ד	$= \delta =$ d	ס	$= \sigma =$ s
ה	$= \varepsilon =$ ĕ	ע	$= o =$ o
ו	$= F =$ f or vow or ou or u	פ. ף final	$= \pi =$ p
ז	$= \zeta =$ z	צ. ץ final	$= \upsilon =$ y
ח	$= \eta =$ ē or $\chi =$ ch?	ק	$= \quad =$ q
ט	$= \vartheta =$ th	ר	$= \rho =$ r
י	$= \iota =$ i	ש	$= \xi =$ x
כ. ך final	$= \kappa =$ k	ת	$= \tau =$ t

And illustrate by

AN ATTEMPTED TRANSLITERATION OF GENESIS X.

ch ch ch
1. v ale tuldt bni-nē xm em v ipt v iuldu lem bnim aĕr embul
Noah Shem Ham Japheth

v
2. bni ipt gmr v mgug v mdi v iun v tbl v mxk v tirs
Japheth Gomer Magog Madai Javan Tubal Meschech Tiras

* See Josephus, "Wars of the Jews," Book v, Ch. v, 7.

3. v bni gmer axknz v ript v tgrme
Gomer Ashkenaz Riphath Togarmah

v
4. v bni iun alixe v trxix ktim v ddnim
Javan Elisha Tarshish Kittim Dodanim

ch
5. male nprdu aii eguim barytm aix llxnu lmxpētm bguiem

ch z?
6. v bni ēm kux v myrim v puth v knon
Ham Cush Mizraim Phut Canaan

ch
7. v bni kux sba v ēvile v sbte v rome v sbtka v bni rome xba v ddn
Cush Sheba Havilah Sabtah Raamah Sabtechah Raamah Sheba Dedan

ch
8. v kux ild at-nmrd eva eēl leiut gbr bary
Cush Nimrod

9. eva-eie gbr-yid lpni ieve ol-kn iamr knmrd gbur yid lpni ieve
Jehovah Nimrod Jehovah

10. v tei raxit mmlktu bbl v ark v akd v klne bary xnor
Babel Erech Accad Calneh Shinar

ch ch
11. mn-eary eeva iya axur v ibn at-ninve v at-rēbt oir v at-klē
Asshur Nineveh Rehoboth Calah

ch
12. v at-rsn bin ninve v bin klē eva eoir egdle
Resen Nineveh Calah

ch
13. v myrim ild at-ludim v at-onmim v at-lebim v at-nptēim
Mizraim Ludim Anamim Lehabim Naphtuhim

ch
14. v at-ptrsim v at-kslēim axr iyav mxm plxtim v at-kptrim
Pathrusim Casluhim Philistim Caphtorim

z? ch
15. v knon ild at-yidn bkru v at-ēt
Canaan Sidon Heth

16. v at-eibusi v at-eamri v at-egrgxi
Jebusite Amorite Girgashite

ch
17. v at-eēvi v at-eorqi v at-esini
Hivite Arkite Sinite

ch ch ch
18. v at-earudi v at-eymri v at-eēmti v aēr npyu mxpēut eknoni
Arvadite Zemarite Hamathite Canaanites

z
19. v iei gbul eknoni myidn bake grre od-oze bake sdme v omre v adme
Canaanite Sidon Gerar Gaza Sodom Gomorrah Admah

v ybim od-lxo
Zeboim Lasha

ch ch
20. ale bni-ēm lmxpētm llxntm barytm bgviem
Ham

21. v lxm ild gm-eva abi kl-bni obr aēi ipt egdul
Shem Eber Japheth

22. bni xm oilm v axur v arpkxd v lud v arm
Shem Elam Asshur Arphaxad Lud Aram

ch
23. v bni arm ouy v ēul v gtr v mx
Aram Uz Hul Gether Mash

ch ch
24. v arpkxd ild at-xlē v xlē ild at-obr
Arphaxad Salah Salah Eber

ch
25. vl obr ild xni bnim xm eaēd plg ki biuiv nplge cary v xm aēiv iqthn
Eber Peleg Peleg Joktan

ch
26. v iqthn ild at-almudd v at-xlp v at-evrmut v at-irē
Joktan Almodad Sheleph Hazarmaveth Jerah

27. v at-edurm v at-auzl v at-dqle.
Hadoram Uzal Diklah

28. v at-oubl v at-abimal v at-xba
Obal Abimael Sheba

ch
29. v at-aupr v at-ēvile v at-iubb kl-ale bni iqtbn
Ophir Havilah Jobab Joktan

30. v iei muxbm m-mxa bake spre er eqdm
Mesha Sephar

31. ale bni-xm lmxpētm llxgtm barytm lguiem
Shem

ch ch
32. ale mxpēt bni-nē ltuldtm bguiem umale nprdu eguim bary aēr embul
Noah

ALSO OF JUDGES XII, 6.

ch
v iamru lu amr-na *xblt* v iamr *sblt* v la ikin l dbr bn v iaēzu autu v ix-
Shibboleth Sibboleth
ethuēu al mobrut eirden v ipl bot eeia maprim arboim v xnim alp.

On the Grapeville Gas-wells. By J. P. Lesley.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, March 6, 1891.)

Mr. John Fulton, General Manager of the Cambria Iron Works, at Johnstown, Cambria county, Pa., has kindly furnished me with the following particulars of one of the most important and significant episodes in the strange story of Petroleum in Pennsylvania :

1. A report to him made October 12, 1888, by Edgar G. Tuttle, then Mining Engineer of the Company. This gives :—(*a*) the number of wells (27 or more) around Grapeville, in Westmoreland county, up to that date sunk and piped by different companies ;—(*b*) the length and sizes of the pipe line to Johnstown ;—(*c*) the pressures of gas at the well, at the 4th, 8th, 12th, 16th, 20th, 24th, 28th, 32d, 36th and 39th mile, and at the Cambria Works terminus.

2. A second report made to him two years later, February 25, 1891, by M. G. Moore, now Mining Engineer of the Company. This gives :—(*a*) the titles of eleven companies owning 85 gas-wells in the Grapeville district ;—(*b*) an account of the drilling especially of the Agnew well ;—(*c*) a table showing the decline of pressure at the Westmoreland and Cambria Companies' wells, from 386 lbs. on April 29, 1889, to 65 lbs. on February 2, 1891 ;—(*d*) a full table of the Co.'s thirteen wells, depths, dates of striking gas, the initial pressure of each, subsequently observed pressure at April 29, 1889, December 15, May 26, November 3, December 1, 1890,

January 5 and February 2, 1891, the first six wells starting with 460 lbs. and ending with 70 and 65 lbs. ;—(*e*) a diagram of the mode of piping the Agnew well;—(*f*) a map of the country between Pittsburgh and Johnstown, showing location of groups of wells.

Mr. Fulton was prompted to sending me the data described above by his remembrance of my address, some years ago, at Pittsburgh, before the American Institute of Mining Engineers, in which I reiterated my belief on geological grounds in the comparatively speedy extinction of the rock gas industry of the country. He adds : "You will notice that recently one of the wells [at Grapeville] has been deepened to reach the 'Gordon sand,' and that a small supply of gas was found in this second and lower horizon of natural gas, but not enough to warrant any hopefulness of its maintaining the supply. A part of our works are being supplied yet with the natural gas from Grapeville, but it is weakening so fast that we have got to supplement it with artificial gases" (February 26, 1891).

My warrant for publishing in the Proceedings of this Society these most important geological and historical data is found in Mr. Fulton's words : "I do not think that there is anything in this report that is so private or confidential that it should not be made known; and you can therefore use the matter in these reports as you think wise. At the Cambria works we are using the Archer oil gas to take the place of the natural gas, and we are finding this to be a very good substitute. As you know, the Archer process consists in vaporizing fuel oil, and mixing at a very high heat steam with the oil. We have also opened our mines again here and are using coal in a great many sections of the works" (March 13, 1891).

October 12, 1888, the Westmoreland and Cambria Natural Oil Company owned seven (7) wells, located principally along Brush Creek, northeast of Grapeville, Westmoreland county, Pa. Three wells were connected with the pipe line ; the others were held in reserve, two of them being drilled to a thin crust of hard rock (silica) just overlying the gas sand, which served as a hermetical cover to prevent the escape of the gas, even at its high pressure in the gravel-sand rock beneath it.

This fact is important as explanatory of the retention of the gas in the rock for past ages.

The wells are 1100 to 1400 feet deep, according to their locality in the valley or on the hill, the gas rock lying nearly horizontal.

The pipe in the well is of 5 inch diameter.

The two wells, A, A^1, on the map, were turned on full for the pipe to Johnstown, the well R being turned on more or less as a regulator of the supply at the Cambria works.

The pressure at top of well was 335 lbs., as the 10-inch main to Johnstown would not stand a much higher pressure.

There seemed no difference in strength or volume of gas per minute blown off (free) by one of these wells, in Mr. Tuttle's presence, compared with that which he saw two years before at a free blow from a well just north of Grapeville Station.

The gauges were noted often, so as not to permit the pressure to rise much above 335 lbs.; and when this seemed likely to occur well R was shut sufficiently to reduce it again to 335. Formerly a weighted safety-valve, allowing a free blow, was used. Saturday evenings wells A, A^1 were closed, and only R used. "The gas in this field is not being wasted as formerly, or as greatly as it has been in the Murraysville field; and the prospects are that the Grapeville field will last the longer of the two."

"I understand that the flowing pressure in the Murraysville field is now [October 12, 1888] 250 lbs. The Grapeville wells have great volume. When one is blowing off in the air and then is shut quickly, the gauge runs up in fifteen or twenty seconds to 525 lbs. In some districts the wells require a minute, and even longer, to reach their normal of 500 lbs. The weaker or low-pressure wells require days to reach their normal pressure."

As it is impossible to store or tank gas, wells are now drilled to within a few feet of the gas horizon and "held" there. When the supply from other wells weakens, these wells are sunk into the gas rock, one after the other, to keep up the supply.

Wells that have broke through to the gas are restrained by a "packer," a thick, heavy rubber cylinder, 20 inches long, outside diameter ½ inch less than bore of well, fastened at the ends to the pipe going into the well (see cuts). The end of this pipe fits into the end of another pipe, making a "slip joint;" rubber flush with the outer diameter of the pipe; lower joint generally perforated to admit the gas; pipe A lowered into the well (and, if necessary, pressed down) to slip into pipe B, bulging the rubber packer against the sides of the well, and effectually stopping the rise of the gas *outside* the pipes. It can then be controlled by a valve at the top of pipe A, at the well mouth. Before this invention the gas could be held only below a certain pressure, above which it would force its way between the pipe and the sides of the well and blow the whole casing into the air. The economy to a district of the new "packer" is evident.

"At present (October 12, 1888) there appears to be no weakening of the supply, except when unusual and sudden demands are made on the gas. If the supply weakens, or a greater supply is needed, more wells may be added to the line. This may require the laying of more pipe, or the replacing of the present 10-inch main by a larger one. The W. & C. Company own about 20,000 acres, controlling a large part of the gas field."

The companies and wells around Grapeville in 1888 were as follows:

Westmoreland and Cambria, 7 wells, drilled between 1885 and 1888, three of them piped to Johnstown.

Carnegie, 6 wells.

Southwest, 2 or more, piped to Connellsville, etc. (drilling also on Brush Creek).

Greensburg Fuel, 2 wells, piped to Greensburg.

Jeanette Glass Works, 2, piped one mile west to the works.

Philadelphia Co., drilling near New Salem.

Owners unknown, 8 or more wells.

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Table of Pressures to Show Loss by Friction.

Distance from well.	Size. of pipe.	1886. ——	1886. Nov. 13.	1887. March.	1887. March 15.
0	10 in.	155 lbs.	200 lbs.	820 lbs.	833 lbs.
4	"	149	182	818	820
8	"	132	170	285	295
12	"	120	148	255	261
16	"	112	129	208	212
20	"	84	100	166	168
24	12 in.	75	85	132	130
28	"	68	70	95	95
32	16 in.	55	58	75	76
36	"	53	51	54	87
H.S.	"	52	50	53	86
39	"	20	—	25	25
C.W.	20 in.	20	—	25	25

Table of Wells and Ownerships, February 25, 1891.

Greensburg Fuel Gas Company	5	wells.
Southwest Natural Gas Company	9	"
Versailles Natural Gas Company	3	"
Youghiogheny Gas Company	3	"
Jeanette Glass Works	4	"
Manor and Irwin Gas Company	2	"
Westmoreland Specialty Company	1	"
Westmoreland and Cambria Natural Gas Company	13	"
Carnegie Brothers & Company	11	"
Philadelphia Natural Gas Company	23	"
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Total number reported by M. G. Moore	85	

The W. & C. Company's 13 wells are all piped to Johnstown. Their depths and pressures at various dates may be found on a following table. The deeper are on the hilltops. They all get their gas in the Gants sand rock of Washington county. Well No. 12 was deepened with the design to reach a lower gas sand horizon; but the rope was cut by the sharp sand driven up by the gas issuing from the Gants sand. Before the tools could get through it they were lost, and fishing tools also afterwards; so the well was abandoned, and No. 13 (Agnew well) was drilled a short distance south of No. 12.

This new Agnew well reached the Gants sand January 15, 1891, went through it, and was cased with 8-inch pipe; packed just above the top of the sand; supplied with another inner 6-inch pipe; packed again at the bottom of the sand; and the Gants sand gas between the pipes laid into the Johnstown main.

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Below the Gordon sand, for 1070 feet to the bottom of the well, not a sign of gas or gas rock was observable. [This only bears out all Mr. J. F. Carll's observations, published in his reports on the oil regions, especially his Seventh Report, I 5, just published by the Geological Survey of Pennsylvania.] The failure of the Agnew well to get a good supply from the Gordon sand does not necessarily condemn it over the whole Grape-

iles. What more natural than for those who had charge of these records to endeavor to conceal their contents by such a veil as opportunity afforded, viz., that the ancient phonetic value of the letters had been lost and the meaning of the words so obscured that only those initiated by long study of the Jewish sacred mysteries and traditions could read them? In this way we have accounted for the rise of the school of the Talmudists, the study of the Mishna and Gemara, and the origin of the Kabbala. No word was to be pronounced as written; it had an inscrutable meaning only to be learned by the initiated and transmitted by the use of points added to the letters. Add to this the inherent difficulty of representing the sounds of any people in the vocabulary of another race; as instances of this, take the substitution of "l" for "r" by the Chinese in learning English, or the difficulty a Frenchman or German has in acquiring our "th," or the Greek θ; or, as more to the point, the substitution by the uneducated German Jew of "sh" for pure "s." There is something in the physical structure of the vocal organs of each race which is reflected in the vocables used by it. In the Hebrew race as met with to-day this ringing nasal character strikes us all forcibly.

After these introductory thoughts, we are struck with the fact that one of their Hebrew letters, the ע, *ngain*, is so variously pronounced as to make one seriously question its true phonetic value. Its place in the order of the alphabet, as compared with the Phœnician and Greek, is that of the Greek *omicron;* its form in Phœnician and in the old Samaritan is o. In many Hebrew dictionaries this value is given it. Take, again, the ו, *vau*, its place that of the Greek F, *digamma*, its phonetic value that of the Latin v, or English ou. May not our double u, *w*, represent this, as well as the German v, *fow?* The sound of ק, *quof*, is lost to Western languages, except so far as represented by *q*, to which we add a *u* to make it vocable to us. The letters ס, *samech*, and ש, *shin*, are represented by the Greek σ, *sigma*, and ξ, *xi*, but are found in an inverted order in the alphabet. [The confusion between these letters goes back to a far earlier period when we find two of the Hebrew tribes disputing over Shibboleth or Sibboleth.]

But the very first letter is a vocable which in all other alphabets is considered a pure vowel sound, a; the fifth, *he*, is another, ĕ; the sixth, *chayt*, is ē, or ch; the tenth, *yod*, is i, *iota;* and, as above, *vau* = ou, or u (or sometimes f or v), and *ngain* = o. We have thus all our usual vowel sounds except y, which we know in French as *ygrec*, and substitute usually for the Greek *upsilon*. In Hebrew we have two sibilants, *zain* and *tsaddi*, the latter of which occupies the alphabetical position in Greek of *upsilon*. If we now try to substitute in Hebrew, as ordinarily written, the above values for the letters, we shall find we have a perfectly vocable language. The names of men and places are given not very differently from our modern pronunciation of them as elucidated by the pointed Hebrew, when allowance is made for the difference due, as above stated, to racial intonation.

In some instances, two or three consonants are found together, but these may be regarded as familiar abbreviations for well-known words, just as D. L. W. means for us Delaware, Lackawanna and Western R. R., etc. In this way we may find that the Hebrew is really no exception as regards the presence of characters indicating pure vowel sounds; and, indeed, we have the authority of Josephus for the statement that it does. Chief among the words whose pronunciation was to be hidden was the name of the Deity—it was forbidden—and many, long, and bitter have been the controversies as to the true pronunciation of יהוה, *yod, hay, vau, hay.* Josephus says it was composed of four vowels.* He was a priest, and also well versed in Greek and Roman literature, and we may well accept his statement as reflecting the best learning of his times on Jewish matters. It seems to me that this ought to settle the question.

As to the consequences which would follow from such a view, I must leave them to those more competent to follow them out. It seems, however, to me that we would thus have better opportunities of comparing the Hebrew sacred records with those of all other ancient nations, and of clearing up much obscurity in ancient history and geography.

I would therefore suggest the following phonetic values:

א	$= \alpha =$ a	ל	$= \lambda =$ l
ב	$= \beta =$ b	מ. ם final	$= \mu =$ m
ג	$= \gamma =$ g	נ ן final	$= \nu =$ n
ד	$= \delta =$ d	ס	$= \sigma =$ s
ה	$= \varepsilon =$ ĕ	ע	$= o =$ o
ו	$= F =$ f or vow or ou or u	פ. ף final	$= \pi =$ p
		צ. ץ final	$= \upsilon =$ y
ז	$= \zeta =$ z	ק	$= \;=$ q
ח	$= \eta =$ ē or $\chi =$ ch?	ר	$= \rho =$ r
ט	$= \vartheta =$ th	ש	$= \xi =$ x
י	$= \iota =$ i	ת	$= \tau =$ t
כ. ך final	$= \kappa =$ k		

And illustrate by

AN ATTEMPTED TRANSLITERATION OF GENESIS X.

ch ch ch
1. v ale tuldt bni-nē xm em v ipt v iuldu lem bnim aĕr embul
Noah Shem Ham Japheth

v
2. bni ipt gmr v mgug v mdi v iun v tbl v mxk v tirs
Japheth Gomer Magog Madai Javan Tubal Meschech Tiras

* See Josephus, "Wars of the Jews," Book v, Ch. v, 7.

the same name to the two ears, and only distinguished the terms apart in writing, by drawing the ideograph of eyes in the one case and of ears in the other. The pharaohs had two high officials, one called "his eyes in the south," and the other called "his ears in the north."

But *anχ* not only meant to live, to be alive, but had another derivative meaning, with a very remarkable application to the story of Enoch, viz., *to lift oneself, to rise up* and stand, *resurrection* and *ascension*. This meaning it retains in modern Coptic, as ONK, *extulit, assurexit*. An inscription at Edfu uses it for "the sun rising in the east." At Denderah is a picture of a sacred boat, in which stands a lotus flower, from which a snake is rising into the air, with the legend: "The snake ascends (*anχ*) from the lotus of the ship." On the sarcophagus of Besmut, at Luxor, is read, *anχ-f*, etc.: "He ascends like the ten stars." Another inscription reads: "The stars ascend (*anχu*) in heaven." And at Esne: "The stars ascend (*anχu*) to do their duty in the night." At Abydos, an inscription to King Seti I, of the nineteenth dynasty (before the date of the Exodus), addresses him thus: "Thou goest up (*χa-k*) above the earth like the bark of Orion in its season; thou arisest (*anχ-ta*) like the Star Sothis" (see Brugsch's Dict., pp. 198, 199).

The Hebrew tradition that the Hebrews came out of Egypt agrees with the fact that Moses, Aaron, Hur (named together, Exod. xvii, 10), Miriam, Achsaph (Caleb's daughter), Manassah (Joseph's son), and other early legendary personal names, are purely Egyptian. The intercourse of the two peoples was always intimate. The kings Asa, Amon and Manasseh had Egyptian names. Before the exile, the Hebrew colonies in the Delta were important. The Book of Genesis was not necessarily compiled at Jerusalem. The story of Joseph and Potipher's wife was based on the D'Orbigny papyrus. Adam and Seth seem to be the names of the two chief Delta deities Atum and Set. Noah and his wife seem to represent the Egyptian divine duad Nun and Nunt. There is nothing startling, therefore, in finding the *anχ* in the name Enoch, whose legend forms an episode in the antediluvian list.

The occupation of Southern Syria by the Egyptians dates back to the most remote times. The cartouche of Snefru, first king of the fourth dynasty, builder of one of the great pyramids, is cut on the rocks of the Sinaitic peninsula, at the turquoise and copper mines. The Hebrew legend of the *Anakim* of the Hebron country gives Anak three sons with Egyptian names, Ahiman, Sesai, Tolmai, fathers of the three tribes of the Anakim. Whether there was any philological connection or not, the compilers of Exodus seem to have seen the *anχ* in the name *Anak*, and described therefore the people as a giant race, analogous to the ghostly or demoniac Rephidim.

Remembering the large Greek element in the Delta far back in the centuries before Christ, and the Greek tradition that as Cadmus came from Phœnicia and settled Bæotia, so Cecrops came from Sais in Egypt and settled Attica, bringing with him the goddess Neith (Pallas Athéné), we

might confidently expect many Egyptian words and names in Greece. Of these I will only allude to *Inachos* (*anch*), son of Oceanus and Tethys, who founded the Kingdom of Argos; and the sacred rivers *Inachos*, one in Argolis, the other flowing from Mount Pindus.

But to return to proper names in Hebrew; perhaps the most interesting of them all, in an etymological way, is that of *Enos*, the legendary grandson of Adam, in the second account of the creation in the fifth chapter of Genesis, the chapter which contains the name of Enoch. The word Enos is written, whether rightly or wrongly, אנוש, and pointed so as to be pronounced ănosh. The same word, written and pointed in the same way, occurs in the 55th Psalm and Job v, 17, with the meaning *a man*, but usually appears in the Hebrew books with a collective meaning as *mankind*. It occurs in *Son of Man*, Ps. cxliv, 3. Isaiah viii, 1 is directed to write with a *man's stylus*, that is, in the vulgar or common or demotic scrip, so that everybody could comprehend. Like Adam (man) it had no plural. But in later days, as when the Book of Daniel was written, the third letter had been dropped and the word became *ansh*, or emphatically *anshá*, meaning *man, mankind, man as man;* and this gave the common plural *anshim, men*. It repeatedly occurs in this book in the phrase "Son of man." A still further contraction of it gave the popular form AIS*h*, איש, *man*, with its feminine *aishé*, *woman* (as the Greek ἕνς, *one*, was contracted into εἷς, with a closer connection between the two languages than Gesenius here suspected).

In the pronunciation of words we must keep in mind that until the age of printing spelling has always been optional, and pronunciation local. Words passed from ear to ear, not from eye to eye. The same word was pronounced gutturally or dentally or lingually by different races and individuals, and written accordingly. Words were clipped, and written accordingly. Every Egyptian, Hebrew or Greek scholar knows this. Whether the *Anch* was spelled with an aleph, heth or áyen, it remained the same word. In one part of Egypt it was pronounced *anχ*, in another part *ansh;* just as the East Germans say *ich*, the North Germans *ik*, and the West Germans *ish*, for the English *I*, which the Greeks and Romans pronounced *eg-o*, the Hebrews *anoki*, the old Egyptians *nuk*, and the Copts *anuk*. By reference to Admiral McCauley's Dictionary, published in our Transactions in 1882, you will see at the top of the first column, on page 22, "*Anχ*, life;" followed by "*Ansh*, to exist, to subsist." Other proofs it is unnecessary to adduce to show the practical identity of the Egyptian *Anχ, life*, and the Hebrew *Anosh, Ish, man, Enos*.

As to the genetic connection of *Anχ* and the Hebrew *Anoki, I*, the first personal pronoun, I would approach the subject with all possible caution. It is a fact that the pronoun was written *Ani*, without the *k*, especially in what Gesenius calls the "silver age of the Hebrew,". Eccles. ii, 1, 11, 12, 15, 18, 20; iii, 17; iv, 1, 2, 4, 7; vii, 25. In Gen. xv, 7, and xxiv, 24, it stands alone (including the substantive verb) for *I am*. Schwartze, in his "Coptic Grammar," pp. 340, etc., seems to quite settle the fact that the final

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53	Sandstone, brown, coarse and fine	745
55	Shale, brown	800
77	Sandstone, bluish red, hard; with white clay veins	877
63	Sandstone, brown, fine grained	940
40	Shale, brown, soft. "*Show of petroleum*"	980
30	Sandstone, brown, hard. "*Show of petroleum*"	1010
15	Shale, *grayish black*	1025
	Shale, blue, here.	
55	Sandstone, red-brown, hard	1080
70	Sandstone, red-brown, hard	1150
	Here cased off the fresh surface water.	
5	*No record of this interval*	1155
31	Shale, pink	1186
64	Shale, pink	1250
10	"*Black slate, hard*"	1260
90	Sandstone, red, "like the mass at 1150"	1350
40	"*Black slate, hard*"	1390
	Here, gray sandstone.	
16	Sandstone, gray, hard; with very minute white pebbles as large as pins' heads	1406
3	"*Sand perfectly black and gritty;* boring easy"	1409
31	Shale, light gray, gritty	1440
7	Shale, reddish	
6	Shale, dark blue	
42	Shale, light gray	
12	Shale, reddish, hard and gritty	1506
39	Shale, reddish	1545
15	Sandstone, bluish gray, fine grained rock	1560
9	"COAL, ANTHRACITE"	1569

Here, in answer to my verbal objections to the notes in his well-book, Mr. Rosenzi explained that the thickness might be incorrect, owing to the churning of the tools, but that it was in his opinion "certainly 5½ feet;" and that the "coal" came up in fine specks (no larger than the head of a pin) like all the other crushed and ground-up sand pumpings from the well, from top to bottom. No larger pieces were obtained; and no analyses were made. The well was worked in brackish water, which afterwards became salt water. *See below at 1616,* where salt was first noticed on the board walls of the derrick.

10′	"*Black slate rock, very hard*"	1579′
25	Sandstone, gray, fine, softer	1604
6	Sandstone, brown, hard rock	1610
6	Sandstone, gray, fine, softer	1616
	Here cased off the "salt water."	
8	Sandstone, first dark, then light gray	1624
	"Here salt water again and plenty of it."	

I could get no clear idea of this from Mr. Rosenzi's description. He first noticed the salt as a deposit from water splashed on the derrick. The salt taste was decided. He could say nothing about the flow, as the well was always full of water, but I could not learn that any stream issued from the mouth of the well.

16′	"*Black slate*, coarse, mixed with minute specks of COAL, and minute light gray pebbles	1640′
9	Sandstone, coffee-colored	1649
5	Sandstone, brown, very fine	1654
9	Sandstone, brown, very fine	1663
21	Sandstone, brown, very fine	1684
5	Sandstone, brown, dark	1689
10	Sandstone, gray, dark; hard	1699
5	Sandstone, gray, light, sharp	1704
17	Sandstone, brownish red, of usual character	1721
15	"*Black slate*"	1736

"*Cased well against salt water in black slate, at 1736.*"

"The driller remarks that here came in genuine soft black slate, which he recognized as the overlayer of the Oil Sand in Allegheny county, in the Wild Wood district where he worked." Nothing could more forcibly illustrate the ignorance of the well drillers as a class than this astounding statement; which is only exceeded by the ignorance of oil and gas speculators as a class, and the stockholders of the companies which they form, in giving ready credence to such statements from men whose only interest is that of obtaining their daily pay for boring wells.

2′	Sandstone, gray, fine, like 1604	1738′
14	Sandstone, brown, fine, hard	1752
28	Sandstone, brown, coarser	1780
	Cased off salt water successfully at 1782.	
5	Sandstone, brown, fine	1785
5	Shale, gray, hard	1790
30	Shale, grayish black	1820
9	Shale, light gray, bluish, hard	1829
3	"Blue Monday," (a term used by the drillers in Western Pennsylvania)	1832
26	Sandstone, bluish gray	1858
2	Shale, gray, hard	1860
10	Shale, brown, soft	1870
8	Sandstone, gray, sharp	1878
82	Sandstone, brown (or red), hard	1960
35	Shale, pink (or red), soft	1995
89	Sandstone, brown, coarse (February 21, 1891)	2084

I suppose that the boring is to be carried on to greater depth.

Mr. Benjamin Smith Lyman, Assistant on the Geological Survey of the State, whose Report on the Trias Brown Sandstone Belt of Bucks, Montgomery and Chester counties, Pa., is not yet quite ready for publication, informs me that the place assigned to *coal* in the above well record would come about 11,000′ below the top, or 10,000′ above the bottom of his general section of the formation ; the coal-bearing shales of Phœnixville being say 3500′ or 4000′ above the conglomerate base.

His long and exhaustive survey of the district has resulted in giving a combined thickness of more than 21,000 feet to these Mesozoic strata ; in a demonstration of the duplication of its measures along the Delaware river ; and in the discovery of both longitudinal and transverse anticlinal and synclinal flexures of considerable size. The latter system of folds is a very remarkable phenomenon, seeing that the folds lie with their northern ends abutting against (or riding over) the Durham hills, that range of Azoic highlands which extends from Reading into Northern New Jersey.

Mr. B. S. Lyman said:

Although the precise position of the Revere, or Rufe's Corner, well-boring has not been indicated within several hundred feet, it appears that the so-called coal bed is part of a 600 or 800 feet thick series of generally hard green and dark-red shales at something like 11,000 feet below the top of the Mesozoic rocks, mainly red shales, of Bucks and Montgomery counties, and 10,000 feet above the bottom of them, and 6000 feet above the hard blackish shales of the Phœnixville tunnel.

With a sketch he showed the course of the outcrop, a mile or so in width, of the green and dark-red shales, including the so-called coal bed and one or two other blackish shale layers, with generally a gentle northwesterly dip, from the Delaware river near Milford, N. J., along the east, south and west sides of a basin to Rufe's Corner ; thence northwestward, westward and southeastward, round Stony Point and Bucksville, in saddle form, east of the Haycock mountain, nearly to Ottsville ; then in almost a straight line southwestward for a dozen miles, past Perkasie and Sellersville ; and five or six miles further southwest, though bending slightly northward at Tylersport upon the southeastern disappearing end of a rock saddle ; but near Sumneytown bending sharply round a more important saddle so as to reach Harleysville, half a dozen miles to the southeast ; and there with a like decided bend in the opposite direction, but with a wider sweep, turning southwest and then nearly west, passing a little more than a mile south of Shwenksville, and so in a straight course to the Schuylkill, between Linfield and Sanatoga and some three miles below Pottstown.

The course of these comparatively hard beds is marked nearly everywhere by a decided ridge, particularly well defined between Ottsville and Sumneytown, and tunneled through at Perkasie. As the beds are partly green, their course is also indicated by the yellowish or greenish gray

color of the surface of the ground contrasted with the red on either side from the several thousand feet of red shales above and below, except where trap replaces them above for a long distance from the Haycock southwestward. The geological structure is also well shown by very numerous observed dips and strikes.

Here and there among the harder beds, exposures have been observed of a couple of blackish shale layers some three feet thick, perhaps identical with those of the boring. One was seen by the roadside near Rufe's Corner; two in a ravine a mile and a half north of Ottsville, where some digging was done half a dozen years ago in a vain search for coal of any economical value, though small traces of it appear to have been found; another exposure of blackish shales was seen half a mile west of Perkasie; and still another about a mile east of Harleysville.

It is, of course, extremely improbable that the beds with a known outcrop of about sixty miles in length, cut across by numerous streams and roads and by several railroads and even in great part by a tunnel, and familiar throughout every foot of its surface to the highly observant inhabitants of the country, could have a coal bed of any value that should never, until this well, have been discovered through any complete natural exposure or through an occasional very noticeable outcropping or blossom. Indeed, facts observable on the surface, such as measured rock exposures, combined with proper regard to their dips, strikes and relative position and elevation, could no doubt give a very complete section of all the beds pierced by the well; and perhaps that will prove to be possible even with the somewhat rough collection of materials already made. From such observations on the surface, the character and thickness of each bed is to be known far more precisely and thoroughly than could be possible from any boring however careful, and beyond all comparison with the results of an ordinary one. The difficulty of accurate information from such wells is shown by the doubt in the present case whether the so-called coal bed was nine feet in thickness or five and a half.

The well record, in spite of all the imperfections that must be expected, has value as giving for a great thickness of rock beds a connected view that may serve in some degree as a check upon the not very essential errors that might arise in combining surface observations, especially those rough ones hitherto obtained. But the chief importance of the record is perhaps as an illustration of how ready men are to lay out thousands of dollars for such explorations where the same number of hundreds would by a surface survey give fuller and more accurate information.

Possible Sterilization of City Water.

By R. Meade Bache.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, April 17, 1891.)

It is an open question whether the characteristic acidity of the digestive fluids is or is not efficacious in destroying pathogenic germs entering the stomach. But it ought to be evident on both sides that neither extreme can represent the truth, even if the digestive fluids possess that general property. It is certainly, on one side, too much to assume that, not even in a perfectly healthy stomach, are those fluids sometimes capable of eliminating such germs from the system, and, on the other, that they are always, in sickness or in health, capable of performing that task. So little vitalized are micro-organisms in their resting-stages, that it is easily conceivable that, when masked by food and water, and when the human system is in a weak condition, many escape the possibly destructive action of the healthiest digestive secretions.

It would, additionally, be an unwarrantable assumption, even if the healthy stomach were proved to be able always to neutralize the morbific action of pathogenic germs, that they find their inevitable path and exit, with or without vitality impaired or destroyed, dead or alive, through the alimentary canal; for in point of fact we know that one kind, at least partially, takes its disastrous course directly into the lungs. When the infinitesimal size of micro-organisms is considered, and when also is considered how varied is the character of the parts with which they must come into contact upon passing the œsophagus, it will readily be perceived that, even if they escape the sometimes assumed destructiveness of the digestive fluids, they must often be absorbed into the blood by other tissues as well as by those of the lungs.

If so believing, we should perceive at the same time that it is hopeless to contend, except by palliative sanitary measures, against the invasion of pathogenic germs through inhalation; but that, on the other hand, especially as our food cannot be sterilized wholesale, we should deeply consider the possibility of contending with them by means of the wholesale sterilization of water, which enters alone, or as the largest constituent, into our

drink. That this has heretofore not been attempted is all the more remarkable, because it is believed by many persons that some of the worst forms of pathogenic germs reach us through the medium of drinking water. Inasmuch, therefore, as success in sterilizing the drinking water of a large city might be of untold benefit to it, it would be well that certain experiments were tried to that intent, upon the assumption that, be the pathogenic germs in a particular water many or few, they become, when received into the alimentary canal, whether or not large numbers of them are successfully dealt with by the stomach, injurious to the human economy.

Inherent in the Anderson iron process for the purification of water is a danger which, therefore, cannot be eliminated. In all processes there is a danger line which human foresight seeks to avoid by a safety-margin, which, in the long run, and in the nature of things, is a substantial guarantee against harm. But there are processes such, from their character, combined with the chapter of exigencies and the chapter of accidents, that they have but a small margin of safety. I place the Anderson process in this category, as an experience at Berlin, showing the danger that may result from the overworking and freezing, or both, of open filter beds, even if so acted upon and cleansed as they are intended to be by the Anderson process, fully warrants me in doing. Moreover, it should be incidentally mentioned that the process is not applicable to the constitution of all waters, or adapted to climates that have always, or are liable to, severe winter cold. It is said, however, upon excellent authority, based upon the indisputable evidence of microscopic examination, that by the process micro-organisms have, under the limiting conditions hereby implied, been neutralized in the proportion of 50,000 to about 20, virtually in the proportion of 50,000 to 0. But, coincidently with this result, which must obtain under favoring circumstances, there also always exists danger in the process through carelessness and neglect in filter cleansing, and necessity without law of overworking the capacity of a filter. As a finality in the process the ferric hydrate generated, blended with organic matter, is precipitated in a flaky, coagulated condition to the bottom of the water, the sand filter-bed of the settling reservoir, where, resting chiefly on the surface, the filter is therefore more readily than usual cleansed. The process therefore

makes no pretense to destroy the micro-organisms, but merely to neutralize as much as possible their injurious action in the human economy, simply by entrapping them. What I contend, however, is that the best process of sterilization is that which does not seek to entrap micro-organisms, with the inseparable danger of their partial or almost entire escape alive, but that which, with abstention from their purposive arrest, kills, and allows them as free passage as possible to the stomachs of city dwellers. It will probably be thought at this point, with a very usual misconception, as that which we have in the Anderson process has proved quite efficacious, whereas that of which I speak is but an ideal, perhaps impossible of attainment, that I am proposing to accept a shadow for the substance of a thing. I would grant the cogency of the thought, had I ever intended to make denial of the excellence of the Anderson process, and proposed to offer a possibility in exchange for a reality. But, having taken neither of these positions, I do but state the case in the abstract, and the truth of it in that form being admitted (and I do not see how it can be denied), I have but to add before proceeding that, excellent as is the Anderson process, within its acknowledged lines, it would still be well to consider if the ideal one is not capable of accomplishment by the means which I am about to suggest.

About two years ago it occurred to me that before experimenting with bacteria, with reference to killing bacilli established in the human body, and with reference to the sterilization of city drinking water by electricity, I would pass a current through some water containing protozoa, and observe how much is required to kill them. With this purpose in view I took a glass tube of four inches in length and five thirty-seconds of an inch in calibre, and partially filled it with water teeming with protozoa from hay-infusion, which had previously been examined by me under the high power of a one-tenth microscopical objective, commanding a large field with an immersion lens, and depending upon which of two eyepieces was used, magnifying from five hundred and fifty to six hundred and fifty diameters. When both ends of the tube had been plugged up with brass eye-screws wrapped with paper, leaving their ends exposed in the tube, the volume of infusion intervening between the ends of the poles thus formed was only two-thirds of a cubic centimeter, and the

distance between the poles only three inches. The electro-motive force at my disposal in my galvanic battery—only about thirty volts—was too small, and the resistance too high under these conditions for me long to hope to affect the protozoa in the tube by means of the current. The smallness of the volume of fluid in which the electricity could find play, and the liberation of hydrogen which could not escape or recombine, were together the cause of this; the resistance from the latter cause proceeding by great leaps when a higher current was eventually employed. With the infusion the resistance was far less than with pure water, but still far too great to allow of much current, owing in sum to the small volume of liquid and to the increased liberation of gas in it as compared with that liberated in water. The current was so slight that at this point of time I was satisfied that if I were not able thus to destroy the vitality of the protozoa—and that was proved by microscopical examination—*a fortiori* it was not to be imagined that the vitality of schizomycetes in water could be arrested, because I had assumed that they would be more difficult than the other organisms to destroy, a conclusion which I do not now think warranted by my final investigation upon the basis of experiment. I therefore desisted from experimenting, and did not resume it until the work of Dr. Griffiths on micro-organisms came under my eye, from which I learned that he had killed bacteria with a very small current in media of a fluid character. I then resumed my experiments upon the basis of my previously enlarged experience, that a considerable volume of water is needed for the play of electricity, and that even a slowly increasing bubble of hydrogen in a closed tube, although far from effecting embolism, nevertheless produces rapidly cumulative resistance. Every one who deals with batteries or who is well-read in electricity knows in a general way of these phenomena; I am merely referring to the exaggerated degree in which they manifest themselves under the specified conditions. I was well aware that for a given ampèrage, a given electro-motive force, a given character of liquid, a given temperature, and a given distance between poles, the resistance to a line of force of electricity is an absolutely fixed quantity. But as my final object, as will eventually be seen, was to charge a large volume of water so that upon being charged the electricity would concentrate with intense energy towards the opposite pole, it became

necessary, even in laboratory experiments, to avoid action where the phenomena appear in an exaggerated adverse form. I therefore next proceeded to deal with small but unconfined volumes of liquid.

With the Wheatstone Bridge, with an electro-motive force of one hundred and ten volts, and one ampère of current, I found the resistance at two inches between the poles, placed vertically in a hay-infusion, in a round glass dish about five inches in diameter, to be 1560 ohms. Making the liquid a little shallower, the other conditions remaining the same, the resistance rose to 2120 ohms. In a very narrow, rectangular receptacle, the other conditions remaining virtually the same, the resistance rose to 3000 ohms. The poles being then placed in water, not in the infusion, in the round glass dish, the other conditions being the same as those in the first experiment, the resistance became 18,400. Slightly increasing the depth of water in the dish, the resistance sank to 13,000 ohms. These rude experiments were followed by a series conducted with two beautifully finished wooden, shellaced boxes, of exactly the same length and depth in the clear, but one of them of only half the width in the clear of the other. Thus was obtained with precision in the larger of the two (but, of course, the same consequence would have ensued with the smaller), by alternately making it exactly one-half full, and then full to the brim, the result that the volume thereby vertically obtained reduces by one-half the resistance of the lesser volume. Thus, also, by filling both boxes to the brim was obtained with precision the result that double the volume of liquid horizontally obtained reduces by one-half the resistance of the lesser volume. Therefore it was demonstrated that resistance in water, as well as in metal, is inversely proportional to volume as determining cross-sectional area, whether increased by vertical or horizontal extension; that is, is inversely proportional to cross-section, as dependent upon volume; and that in whichever of these two directions volume is gained, it introduces, proportionally, freedom of propagation of the electric force in and about the imaginary right-line joining the poles.

The result of a series of experiments, with the poles placed apart at 2, 4, 6, 8, up to 12 inches, showed that the resistance, whatever it may be, varies *directly* as the distance between the poles, a result identical with that in electrically charged wire,

illustrating a law which should have been expected to hold good whatever figure and volume the lines of force between the poles might assume and occupy. The experiments clearly proved, too, that the resistance of water is very much greater than that of an infusion not seemingly dense.

There seems to be with some persons a belief that water is a good conductor, because current electricity so readily discharges itself by means of moistened surfaces. But current electricity so discharges itself through a film of water covering non-conducting surfaces in default of any other conductor whatever; and static electricity, for the same reason, readily vanishes through aqueous vapor, because of the fact that the vapor impairs the resistance of dry air as a dielectric. Yet electricity, in these two manifestations, acts thus, of course, not from choice but from necessity, taking, however imperfect, a path of conduction when there is no other, and the better of two paths when they differ, in proportion to their relative conductivity. Other persons imagine that water is a worse conductor than it really is. Any one who uses a hydro-rheostat well knows the highly resistant property of water to the electric current; but as free and in large volume it is not practically so resistant as it is sometimes thought to be, as any one may prove for himself by the rude experiment of plunging in an ample basin of water the sponge of one reophore of a medical galvanic battery, yielding from thirty to forty volts, while the sponge of the other reophore is placed on the back of the hand submerged in the water at the distance of four or five inches. The hand, the most callous part of the body except the heel, feels the current distinctly in every part, and if it has but the smallest abrasions of the skin in places remote from each other, the electric current makes them sting, finally condensing strongly at the pole on the hand.

After trying the experiments described, I flashed one hundred and ten volts through a glass tube, with half of a cubic centimeter of hay-infusion containing protozoa, with the poles half an inch apart; and also flashed one hundred and ten volts through a looped wire going from top to bottom of a small bottle containing four centimeters of the infusion. In neither case could subsequent microscopical examination detect that the organisms had been affected in the least. The whole of the current, of course, passed through the organisms in the tube. In the case

of those treated with the looped wire it was only the residual force, which the wire did not carry, that they encountered. That under these conditions the wire does not carry all the electricity is shown in the forthcoming description of experiments, in which the work of killing bacteria was successfully accomplished with looped wire passing through fluid media, and carrying only a very small force, but for a considerable time. With so much electro-motive force as I used—one hundred and ten volts—I could not allow the discharge through the micro-organisms to be more than momentary, else they would have been destroyed for certain by the concentrated products of electrolysis.

Two main conclusions seemed to me from the beginning of my experiments to be justifiable. The first of these was that, inasmuch as protozoa have no nervous system, and do not seem to be injuriously affectible by the electric current (barring its action under conditions such as generate heat almost exclusively), we are accustomed to think erroneously of the current as capable of affecting and endangering all sensation and life, solely because of our own possession, and knowledge of the possession among other animals, of a nervous organization upon which stress may be put by the current. It seemed to me that the last experiment proves what is currently believed, that an animal protoplasmic organism has, *ipso facto* of its being protoplasmic, no nervous system. The second conclusion at which I arrived was that, if protozoa of the kind with which I had dealt are not easily killed by the electric current, it would be hopeless to think of destroying schizomyçetes, except by a force which, for the practical purposes that I had in view, it is impossible to apply to them, especially as, in the pleomorphic forms assumed by some of them, it is notorious that they possess latent vitality difficult to extirpate.

I am still inclined to hold to the first conclusion, as justifiable from my experiments as far as they have even now gone, that animal micro-organisms, submerged in water or any other liquid, are not susceptible to injury from electric current approaching in force the highest that I used (which may be regarded as prodigious when the minuteness of the organisms attacked by it is taken into consideration), and that perhaps they are not susceptible to injury under those conditions from any current, however high. But, as to my first conclusion, I have since found myself, upon reading the work of Dr. Griffiths, egregiously in error

through the false inference that I had drawn that, because the electric current did not destroy protozoa of the kind with which I was dealing, therefore bacteria would not be destroyed by it, at least within the bounds compatible with human life or well-being. It seems, however, that vegetable protoplasm, at least of the fungus kind, acts differently from animal protoplasm under the influence of the electric current. After reading the results of Dr. Griffiths, I gladly reverted to the intention with which I had set out in my experiments, of being able to suggest means by which bacilli forming a nidus in the human body could be destroyed and water supplied to cities could be sterilized for drinking purposes.

The author to whom I have referred is Dr. A. B. Griffiths, Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. He remarks that the full details of his experiments with electricity on bacteria are to be found in Volume xv of the Proceedings of the Society. In making the experiments he seems to have had no ulterior object in view but the gaining of information as to what amount of current would destroy certain micro-organisms. The wood-cut which he gives at page 177 of his work, *Micro-organisms*, represents a faradaic, not a galvanic battery, as the generator of the electromotive force used in his experiments. At the beginning of mine I used both the galvanic and the faradaic battery. The receptacles in which Dr. Griffiths placed pure cultures of different bacteria were simple, broad-based, short bottles, in which were fitted from top to bottom of each bottle a single loop of wire in free electric liquid communication with the micro-organisms. He does not in any case give the resistance in ohms of the media employed in the cultures.

The bacillus tuberculosis was killed by 2.16 volts, the bacterium lactis by 2.26 volts, and the bacterium aceti by 3.24 volts. The electric current was allowed to pass for ten minutes, and the temperature of the laboratory during the experiments was 16 C. (60.8 Fah.). In another series of experiments, bacillus tuberculosis was killed by 2.16 volts, bacillus subtilis by 2.72 volts, and bacterium allii by 3.3 volts. The current, as before, was allowed to pass for ten minutes, and the temperature of the laboratory was 17 C. (62.6 Fah.). In the first series of experiments no growths appeared from inoculation in fresh nutritive media, after an incubation of twenty-five days, with the thermometer at

38 C. (100.4 Fah.); and in the second series, similarly treated, no growths appeared after an incubation of twenty days, with the thermometer at 35 C. (95 Fah.). As before incidentally mentioned, all of these experiments were made with wire looped in glass bottles. Consequently all the electricity that attacked the microbes away from the wires was the residuum which the wires did not conduct, necessarily by far the lesser portion; and as the minimum of force was not sought or obtained, what is needed may be a mere fraction of the time and force actually employed. With so small a current as that used, and with the considerable volume of the respective liquids employed—which latter point the wood-cut shows—detriment to the organisms from products of electrolysis may be deemed inappreciable.

It has therefore been demonstrated that certain schizomycetes can be killed in a short time by a low current. Presumably all others can be killed in an equally short time by an equally low current; which was the assumption with which I had set out at the beginning of my own experiments, looking primarily to destroying pathogenic germs in the human body, and secondarily, to rendering them innocuous through the sterilization of water for drinking purposes. I therefore ask myself why, if a very low current, passing for a few minutes, can destroy bacteria in a bottle, should not a much higher one, administered repeatedly for the same time, be sure to destroy them in the human body? Daily, in the course of electro-therapeutic treatment, ten, twenty, twenty-five, and many more volts are administered to patients, avoiding only strong or continuous application of the current to the pneumogastric nerve, on account of the inhibitory action of the heart thereby provoked. But I will not pause just at this moment to speak more fully to this point, but will here confine myself to the main subject of this paper, clearly set forth by its title and the tenor of the preceding remarks. Reverting to the question of the sterilization of water for the use of cities, and with the new light upon the subject, which, as it appears, I might have gained for myself, but for having been diverted from my course by a false inference, I am constrained to ask my hearers, as I have asked myself in this case also, why the attempt should not be made to destroy bacteria wholesale in the drinking water of large cities by the method previously foreshadowed.

The means at our command seem to me ample. It is true that

we cannot electrolize successfully a large reservoir of water, for in that the electricity would be too diffused to be effective. It is true that, in pipes from which water is flowing into or out of the reservoir, its germs would not be subjected to attack for more than a second. It is true that the resistance that we should have to overcome in water would be large. But, on the other hand, it is also true that the electric current that we have at our command is capable of indefinite increase. The electro-motive force of a few thousand volts (there are dynamos that generate ten thousand) thrown athwart a pipe of proper dimensions, would probably paralyze every bacterium in its path, more than compensating by force for slight duration in time as compared with the ten minutes adopted in the experiments of Dr. Griffiths, as to which it is imperative to remember that they did not determine either the amount of current, or of time required, for the destruction of the bacteria experimented upon; and, consequently, it will be observed, both force and time needed are probably very much less than his experiments on their face apparently demonstrate.

If lines of water-delivery as well as those of water-supply were subjected to the attack of the electric current, the severity of it would be more than doubled for the organisms. It would be immeasurably increased in severity; for experiments at the very beginning of bacteriological investigation clearly showed that the best mode of destroying bacteria involves the principle of repeating relatively moderate attacks upon them at intervals such as find them partially recuperated, and assail them in this the period of their least resistant vitality. The method to which I allude is that of repeated boiling of slight duration at moderate intervals of time. That they can bear this apparently severe process at all shows the protective influence for them of any fluid immersion within the chemical character that does not wholly ignore the difference of habits among their different species, and water seems to be a medium inclusive of them all. The principle involved in the mode of attack mentioned is the same as that involved in the mode of destroying bacteria here suggested. Taking it in connection with the facts that a reservoir represents a large volume of water, only a part or a few parts of which are being momently drawn upon for supply, and that many germs are constantly passing through natural phases of relatively less vitality, infinitely below that in which they, if

pathogenic, being received into a favoring host, so vigorously form ptomaïnes, to their self-destruction as well as that of the host, it would seem that, if upon issuing from as well as upon entering a reservoir, the water were attacked in pipes from poles all but encircling them, with an electro-motive force of a few thousand volts, all germs must reach the denizens of cities supplied from such a source, wholly innocuous, because they would be dead.

It need hardly be said that, if the poles were placed opposite to each other on a heavy metal pipe conveying water, the electricity, seeking lines of least resistance, would not pass through the water at all, but around it, through the great mass of the pipe. But it should be obvious that it is easy to adapt to the place of electrical attack of a pipe a simple contrivance consisting of a section of the same diameter as that of the pipe, insulating the poles from each other, and both from the general line of the pipe. A plan that might at the first blush appear to some persons better, as not entailing thus radically breaking the continuity of the main pipe, would be to have two series of metallic insulated screws, representing by position two opposing arcs, the individual screws of which should enter and pass through corresponding holes in the pipe, the ends of the screws being uninsulated. But this plan would not do at all. The experiments described have proved the resistance of water to be so great that a large volume of it is required for electricity to pass easily through it. Consequently, in overcoming the resistance of water in a metal pipe with poles attached, in the form of insulated perforating screws, part of the electricity would, in making large excursions, be received and conducted to the poles by the metal of the pipe, instead of reaching them entirely through the water. But, if the pipe were interrupted by a non-conducting section, of length to be determined by the diameter of the pipe and the electro-motive force to be used, then those excursive lines of force would eventually fall into the determinate direction of the poles entirely through the water. We see this action clearly illustrated in the previous experiment, where, in open vessels, resistance to the current rapidly diminishes as we increase the volume of the liquid. We see the same thing also clearly illustrated in the case of the hand submerged in the ample basin of water, where the remotest abrasions of the skin

sting from the current, finally emerging with condensed force at the pole resting on the submerged hand. In a pipe with a properly calculated non-conducting section, the lines of force would play freely inside of the pipe, occupying and limiting there a rounding imaginary space, varying in figure with every change of force, but always, of course, having its apices at the poles, approaching which, and especially at which, would be concentrated their intensest energy.

If the full significance and legitimate outcome in conclusion from the experiments that have been detailed have been perceived, it will have been realized that, although water acts like wire with reference to conductivity, through length, cross-sectional area, and temperature—exemplifying the law of conduction by and resistance to the electric current, with reference to volume, however disposed—the difference between wire and water, notwithstanding that metal has great conductivity and water very little, is enormous with reference to difference of capacity. We have but to determine, first of all, what electromotive force is needed for the purpose of destroying germs in water, assuming that they are thus destructible, and then, upon that basis, determine what the length and cross-section of non-conducting pipe should be to accumulate and discharge the force required. One could charge a constant stream of water in an insulated pipe as never wire nor any congeries of wires nor any metallic deposit on earth could be charged with electricity; for whereas all these would soon reach their utmost capacity for localized energy, an insulated flowing pipe has back of it all earth ready to receive and effectively return the force transmitted. We, however, need for our purpose at most only a small area of that vast space. But yet it is true, and a striking exemplification of the stated fact that, given a dynamo of far less than infinite power, with poles astride an estuary's living stream, so wide, so deep, that the earth there would not fuse before a fiery blast engendered by resistance, and connected as those waters are with every drop in every brook, the encircling oceans, and the interlying land, it would send its impulse thence over the whole uninsulated globe, and backward, in myriad lines of force, with all but synchronous and omnipresent thrill.

I stated at the beginning of my discourse that it is an open question whether or not the stomach is capable of destroying

pathogenic germs. In that, of course, is involved the other open question, whether or not ordinary drinking-water is the source of disease. I have properly spoken of the questions as open ones, because so many persons are enlisted on opposite sides that I cannot venture without arrogance to decide them authoritatively. The tenor of the preceding remarks, however, must indicate that, personally, I believe drinking-water supply to be ordinarily one of the largest factors in the causation of some zymotic diseases; but lest I may have left it in doubt that I hold that view, I here state it explicitly. I have, I confidently believe, pointed out one way in which the evil may be abated, and perhaps neutralized; and this without disparagement of the efficiency of subsidence basins in their adverse influence upon bacterial dissemination. As to this (with the exception of treatment with iron) the last remaining factor in the production of pure drinking-water, I shall be glad to take a more opportune time than the present occasion, when I have so long engaged the attention of the Society, to prove directly, from my still later experiments and observations, what seems directly proved by the statistics of prevalence of typhoid fever in Philadelphia and elsewhere with reference to areas of different water-supply, that subsidence basins are also an important factor in the health of a city, not only relieving water of impurities in it, represented by alluvial and effete matter in suspension, but also relieving it in a measure of the impurity due to simultaneous deposition of the bacterial bearers of poison to our homes.

As to our ability to destroy the bacillus tuberculosis in the human body, by means of percutaneous administration of the electric current, I hope that I may be allowed to say a final word. I cannot see, as I have already remarked, why, if it can be killed in a bottle with a mere fraction of two volts (as I have shown by the experiments of Dr. Griffiths that it must have been killed), it cannot be killed in the patient suffering from tuberculosis, by the enormously greater electro-motive force that the body is capable of receiving without detriment in a concentrated form. This statement, however, is not intended to imply that the current would be capable of curing a case of tuberculosis which had involved caseous degeneration of the parts. If it did, it would also imply that to my mind electricity is creative. Electricity, however, although not creative, includes

among its manifold and marvelous properties not only dynamic power, but attributes regenerative of vitality, and with these two it is capable, if the experiments of Dr. Griffiths are to be relied upon, of killing the bacillus tuberculosis in the living human body, in case the lesions of the disease have not seriously impaired electric conductivity in the parts morbidly invaded; and capable also of contributing to restore healthy function to them, and thence normal structure. It remains for physicians to make the essay here indicated at no expense or risk whatever. If the treatment prove to have any virtue in it, it would apply to other bacterial diseases besides tuberculosis.

In regard to the essay with reference to the sterilization of drinking-water, experiments could be made at no great labor and expense compared with the vast interests at stake in a large city. Through microscopic tests would soon be set at rest the question as to whether to any, and if to any, to what extent germs could, by the means described, be destroyed in city water, and scrutiny of the health of the city, within the lines especially of certain diseases, through comparison of present with past records, would in successive years have its own independent and conclusive tale to tell. I pledge Philadelphia prospectively in a bumper of pure water more worthy of celebration than the best Falernian wine.

Obituary Notice of P. W. Sheafer. By J. P. Lesley.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, April 3, 1891.)

Peter Wenrich Sheafer was born at Wiconisco, in Dauphin county, Pa., March 31, 1819. His father, Henry Sheafer, was afterwards President of the Lykens Valley Railroad Company, and Superintendent of the Lykens Valley Coal Company, mining the finest quality of anthracite coal, at the west end of the Southern Anthracite Coal field. The discovery of the Lykens valley coal bed in the body of the Pottsville Conglomerate was one of the astonishing incidents of Pennsylvania geology, and enabled the Sheafers, father and son, to establish a great trade in anthracite coal upon the line of the Susquehanna river as far as Baltimore.

Peter Sheafer was engaged at various times in his long professional life in following the outcrop of this interconglomerate coal around the edges

of the Southern and Middle fields, but without finding it in an equally good condition in any other parts of the region. He often expressed to me his hopes and his disappointments regarding it. It was but an episode in his career, for his large fortune was chiefly accumulated by the purchase and exploitation of the Mammoth and other large beds overlying the Conglomerate.

After leaving school, Peter took a full course at Oxford Academy, New York, with the object of a better geological acquaintance with coal and coal mining. But at that early date, the science of geology could hardly be said to exist. In 1835, the New Jersey and Virginia State surveys, and in 1836 the Pennsylvania survey, were begun. Prof. H. D. Rogers' first assistants were Mr. Booth, afterwards the chemist of the United States Mint, and Mr. Frazer, afterwards Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania. The following year, Mr. Trego, Mr. McKinney, Dr. Whelpley, and others were appointed assistants on the survey. In 1838, Peter W. Sheafer received his commission, while Dr. Whelpley had charge of the Southern and Middle field, and Mr. McKinley of the Northern field. Henderson and I were the next year Whelpley's aids, and I saw little or nothing at that time of Peter Sheafer, who was busy with his own part of the field work, and was laying the foundation of that accurate knowledge of the order and quality of each coal bed which enabled him afterwards to make himself easily the principal practical mining engineer of the anthracite region. His mind and the training of it was just suited to this work of his life. He had good judgment, inexhaustible liking and ability for work, a retentive memory, a quick eye for money values, a peaceable disposition, great caution in undertaking, and pertinacity in accomplishing the exploitation of properties. He made himself personally acquainted with everybody and everything that happened or was likely to happen in the anthracite world, and kept himself in constant intercourse with owners, investors, speculators, mining prospectors, engineers, and railroad companies; and, what was the key to his fortune, never rode hobbies, or allowed himself to be turned aside into other pursuits; although at various times in his life he traveled far to examine and report upon distant coal fields for those who employed him as a professional adviser. I have known, also, of his reports on iron-ore properties and oil and gas lands. He was also a great collector of statistics, and was the first to conceive the idea of a statistical coal pagoda, with lines drawn across it at regular intervals to represent successive years, the old legendary 365 tons of anthracite sent to market the first year forming the apex of the pagoda, and its successive stories, bulging or being overhung according as the anthracite market received a greater or less addition to its ever-swelling volume of trade. He was for many years the recognized authority for the statistics of the region.

In 1848, he married Miss Harriet Whitcomb, of New England, and set up his home and office in Pottsville, the capital of the anthracite country. For forty-three years this has been his happy, hospitable, and elegant

residence, and here his children, Louise, Arthur, William, and Harry were born and educated, his sons becoming partners in his enterprises, sharing the toils, the responsibilities, and the wealth of their father, and fitted well to maintain the honor of his name.

In 1850 Peter Sheafer took an active and influential part in the effort inaugurated by William Parker Foulke of Philadelphia and other gentlemen to obtain an appropriation from the Legislature for publishing Prof. H. D. Rogers' Final Report on the Geology of the State. Half of the appropriation was to be spent in field work, to bring the Report up to date, especially that part of it which related to the anthracite coal fields. Mr. Rogers formed a corps, consisting of Peter Sheafer and his cousin, John Sheafer, for underground surveys; myself for surface topography; Edward Desor, of Neuchatel, for the study of the surface deposits, and Leo Lesquereux, of Columbus, O., for the study of the coal plants. This work only lasted one year, and this corps was disbanded, but a good deal of special work was done in the following year or two in other parts of the State; and the Report did not appear until 1858.

At the organization of the Second Survey of the State, in 1874, Peter Sheafer's business interests were too exacting and important to permit of his taking an active personal hand in it, but he did all that he could to further the interests of the survey at Harrisburg and elsewhere through the following fifteen years of the continuance of the survey; and I am happy to say that the intimate friendship which he and I formed in 1851 was confirmed and continued with unabated cordiality to the present time. His son Arthur was commissioned as Mr. Ashburner's assistant in the long and difficult survey of McKean, Elk, Cameron, and Forest counties, where he exhibited great abilities for field and office work inherited from his father; and the greatest part of the "Report on Elk County," with its illustrations, is from Arthur Sheafer's own pen.

Peter Sheafer was a genial and lovable man, a religious man, and, what always struck me as very interesting, a man of poetical temperament, and a reader of the poets. But he was never properly trained to express his thoughts in a style of elegant composition. His business writings were unexceptionable. His statements of business facts and contracts were satisfactory, but he was unused to a logical, consecutive, well-systematized and picturesque presentation of a subject. This is, of course, to be ascribed to his lack of youthful classical training. I have often thought of him as that one of my friends whose life career best illustrated the advantages and disadvantages of college discipline. For by not going to college he gained more than he lost, and enjoyed great worldly and social prosperity at the very small cost of missing literary facility. I even doubt that the lack of technical school training in his profession as civil and mining engineer was at any time an obstacle in his path of life. He learned enough to join his experienced father in earlier enterprises; and in after ones his intercourse with business men and technical books and

professional experts supplemented his own experiments and kept his intellectual ability abreast of the public needs of each succeeding year.

My friend Sheafer was a silent man, I should say reticent, always smiling and cheery in conversation, but seldom or never allowing even to his enthusiasm more than a momentary flash of expression. He had the confirmed habits of a good listener; and what he himself had to say was said in the fewest words the theme permitted or the occasion demanded. He was intently sympathetic, and loved to hear others talk; his own contributions being chiefly made in the shape of facts. No man better appreciated those whom he loved or respected, and this he owed to his poetic temperament.

One of the best instances of his ingenuity is his successful device for gobbing up a mine by boring down to its heading from the surface and causing a stream of water to carry down the bore-hole the fine slack or braize coal from a neighboring dust-hill. The coal-mud thus introduced into the abandoned workings is banked back behind loose brattices which let the water flow through but retain the mud, which in some months becomes solid and firm enough to hold up the roof; and then the workings are reopened and the mine is robbed of its pillars. The coal usually lost by the crushing of the pillars is thus saved without danger to the miners; and the country is also saved from caving and settling; which entails a further profit, inasmuch as the coal beds above the one worked out are preserved intact for future mining. Schuylkill county ought to erect a statue to Peter W. Sheafer for this invention alone.

He became a member of the American Philosophical Society, July 17, 1863. He was a member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, of the American Institute of Mining Engineers, and of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. His philanthropic feelings induced him to become a member of the American Colonization Society.

His death took place at Brown's Mills, Burlington, N. J., to which he had been taken from Atlantic City in the hope of saving his life, and he was buried at Pottsville, March 31, 1891.

He was six months my senior in age; and now I remain the last one of that old set of the first geological survey of our State. They are all gone—H. D. Rogers, Booth, Frazer, McKinney, Trego, Holl, Boyé, R. E. Rogers, Haldeman, Whelpley, Hodge, Jackson, Henderson, McKinley, Sheafer—not one lives to tell the adventures of those early days of our science, when the very foundation principles of it had to be laid, and the physical constitution of Pennsylvania had to be discovered, without experience and without instruction. The bare outlines of the story have been told; but the individual life of that story will never be told; is, in fact, untellable.

Artesian Well in Lowest Trias at Norristown.

Notes by Prof. O. C. S. Carter.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, May 1, 1891.)

Drilled in the Trias of Norristown, near Stony creek, for water for steam boilers.

15′	Made ground........to	15′
23	Sandstone, light colored, coarse grained, containing fragments of orthoclase feldspar........	38
33	Sandstone, dull red, fine grained, with specks of muscovite. Color due to iron oxide........	71
31	Sandstone, light pink (produced by pink orthoclase), fine grained; quartz grains transparent; fine specks of muscovite mica........	102

Water was struck every ten feet down to 70; none thence to 90; abundance of water between 70 and 102 (located by the driller at 95, 100 and 102); cased at 18 with 6 inch pipe ($5\frac{5}{8}$ inside). Steam pump furnished 1003 gallons per hour. After pumping 4000 gallons, the level of water in well fell 12 feet; after 7500 gallons, it fell 16 feet and stood.

Analysis of well water gave 11.8 degrees of hardness, as compared with 6 degrees for Schuylkill river water; 14 degrees for English surface New Red water (Wanklyn); and 17 degrees for English deep well, New Red water.

The lime exists mostly as carbonate, with some sulphate, and probably comes from the cement between the sandstone grains.

Another artesian well, situated within a hundred feet of this one, gave water which precipitated in the boilers a fine white powder of carbonate of lime, which did not cake and was easily blown out. This well water is therefore as useful in steam boilers as is Schuylkill river water; and is better, because it holds no mud or sand in suspension. A little soda neutralizes the sulphate of lime. The water also becomes perceptibly softer after continued pumping.

Artesian Well in Lowest Trias, at Norristown.

Well drilled about half a mile from the Trenton limestone, which outcrops at Mogee's Station, on the Schuylkill river, to obtain water for the manufacture of artificial ice.

Cased at 28 feet with 6 inch pipe.

30′	Sandstone, very white and fine grained, containing a little pink orthoclase........to	30′

5′	Sandstone, white, containing coarse fragments of orthoclase	35′
6	Shale, dark red	41
14	Sandstone, white, containing muscovite mica	55
10	Sandstone, lighter color, more feldspathic	65
3	Sandstone, very white, fine grained	68
6	Sandstone, dark red, coarse, containing much iron oxide and a little mica	74
4	Shale red	78
18	Sandstone, red, fine, micaceous	96
4	Shale red	100

Water was first struck between 35 and 40. More than ten "crevices" [probably water cracks] passed between 35 and 100. The water now rises to within 16 feet of surface. Steam pump delivers 1500 gallons per hour. After ten hours' pumping the water falls only 10 feet in well, the whole fall occurring, however, in the first 45 minutes. With an improved pump 3000 gallons per hour were obtained.

Water Well in Lowest Trias, at Washington Square, Montgomery County.

22′	Sandstone, red, micaceous ... to	22′
12	Clay, stiff, red	34
1	Shale, red (*Trias*)	35

Water first struck at 16 feet; a crevice every 3 or 4 feet; stands at 11 feet from the surface, and never falls lower, no matter how much is pumped, at the rate of 1500 gallons per hour.

Artesian Well in Trias, in Worcester Township, Montgomery County, Pa.

Drilled on the Duffield farm, on the north bank of Stony creek, at the crossing of the Stony Creek Railroad, between Custer and Belfry, through New Red (Trias) red shale and clay slates, some of them blackened with coaly matter.

20′	Clay slate, gray, hard; little mica ... to	20′
5	Clay slate, *blackened* with coaly matter	25
5	Shale, red	30
5	Clay slate, dark, fine grained	35
5	Clay slate, very *black*, hard, compact	40
3	Shale, red	43
2	"*Quartzite*"	45
3	Clay slate, gray	48
17	Clay slate, compact, hard	65

The *quartzite* was said by the driller to be so hard that he could only drill six inches of it in ten hours.

Water was first struck at 88 ; again at 65 ; nowhere else. Water stands at 15 feet of the surface ; yields 60 gallons per hour ; drops 25 feet after pumping 6 hours.

Evidently the Stony creek water soaks slowly through the bed planes between the clay slates.

Artesian Well in Lower Silurian Limestone, in Montgomery County, Pa.

Drilled on Charles Kunkle's farm, south side of the Valley Green road, east of the Bethlehem pike, north-northeast of Flourtown.

40′	Limestone, not micaceous. ....to	40′
20	Limestone, micaceous.............................	60

Water first struck at 40′ ; depth of well 60′ ; several small "crevices ;" water stood at 35 feet beneath the surface, and was not lowered by steam pumping 500 gallons per hour.

Artesian Well in Lower Silurian Limestone, at Parkesburg, Pa.

By Prof. J. P. Lesley.

Mr. P. H. Gibbons, Vice-President of the Parkesburg Iron Co., at Parkesburg, Chester county, Pa., was good enough to furnish me by letters dated January 1, February 9 and February 11, 1886, with fragmentary notes of the boring, and forty-five samples for examination, which I have in bottles, the depth in feet recorded on the corks, and finely powdered specimens on glass slides for microscopic use.

Soil, first passed through..............................	18′
Limestone struck.................................at	20
Quicksand encountered...........................at	23
Cased quicksand out...............................at	24
Limestone ("bastard"), more dense and solid. ......to	42
Quicksand again...................................at	42
Limestone..to	53
Quicksand, with flow of water.......................at	53
Limestone, purer...................................to	92
Sandstone, yellow, fine grained, 7′ thick.............to	99
Limestone, of varying qualities, sometimes sandy, "then mica, then lime or marble ;" no water. ....to	174
Limestone, of varying nature........................to	522

Specimens examined under the lens, at the following depths:

27′ Resembles a sandstone, light gray, with white fracture, some quartz crystals and a show of mica.

32 Same as above, with a trace of iron oxide.

84′ Same as above, with an increase of mica.
87 Same as above.
48 Same material, but blackish gray.
60 More carbonate of lime, and some mica ; reddish crystals, peroxide of iron.
69 Large percentage of carbonate of lime.
79 Limestone.
90 Limestone.
95 Quicksand, yellowish white.
99 Same as last.
102 Limestone ; mica and quartz in quantity.
117 Limestone, reddish.
122 Limestone, bluish light gray, mica.
150 Limestone, with yellowish red crystals.
171 Limestone, white, fine grained.
179 Same as last.
194 Same as last.
208 Limestone, grayish white.
227 Same as last.
239 Same as last.
255 Same as last.
268 Same as last.
282 Same as last.
288 Limestone, hard. and fine grained, light gray, white.
302 Same, increasing in hardness.
308 Same as last.
324 Same, gray and white ; show of mica.
332 Same, darker gray ; more mica.
347 Same as last.
360 Same, bluish gray ; coarse granules.
372 Same as last.
387 Same as last.
404 Same, granules finer ; show of mica.
415 Same, grayish white, still finer ; less mica.
422 Same as last.
433 Same, dark gray, mica, iron.
448 Same, more crystalline (rhombohedral); more mica.
455 Same, crystalline, dark gray.
464 Same, crystalline, gray and white.
472 Same, fine crystals, light gray.
486 Same, finer granules, very hard ; with mica.
502 Same, perfectly crystalline ; more mica and feldspar.

One slide prepared to show crystalline forms.

The occasional dissemination of minute flakes of mica and fine grains of feldspar through the limestone is better evidence of the deep-sea

deposition of these Ordovician or Lower Silurian limestone beds than is the silica in quartz form which they contain.

The beds are highly tilted to the south; therefore the vertical hole exaggerates the thickness. The formation is probably "Calciferous" *No. IIa*, but no fossils have been found just here. No record of water obtained.

Artesian Well in Potsdam Sandstone, in Montgomery County, Pa.

Notes by O. C. S. Carter.

Drilled on William Janeas' property, near Williams Station, at the crossroads, south of Lancasterville, and east of Spring Mill, the Plymouth Railroad sweeping around it on the southwest.

64′	Sandstone (*Potsdam No. I*), coarse ....to	64′
6	Sandstone, fawn colored, micaceous..................	70
10	Sandstone, light brown, fine..........................	80
10	Sandstone, coarse, micaceous, transparent quartz.	90
22	Sandstone, fine, micaceous..........................	112
6	Sandstone, very coarse, larger fragments of quartz, with red iron stains.	118
4	Sandstone, coarse	122
4	Sandstone, fine, grayish brown......................	126
4	Sandstone, coarse, fawn colored.	130
2	Sandstone, fine, resembling ground ginger.	132

No conglomerate like that of the Willow Grove Potsdam outcrop passed through; beds tightly laid so that water crevices were few and insignificant. No water struck until the drill reached 80. Water rose and stood at 70. Steam pump delivered only 300 gallons per hour; water falling 10 feet after pumping 10 hours.

Artesian Well of Chalybeate Water, in Chester Valley Clays, near King of Prussia, Montgomery County, Pa

Notes (condensed) of Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter.

Drilled on William Thomas' land; 90 feet deep; water, deep brown (cider) color, even after 30,000 gallons had been drawn by a steam pump in three days; bubbles of carbonic acid gas constantly escaping; water not clear after standing several days; precipitate, analyzed, was carbonate of iron; precipitation not complete after a week.

35′	Yellow clay.....................................to	35′
10	Layer of rounded pebbles of white quartz, resembling those on the sea shore..........................	45

10′	Fine white sand and pebbles........................	55′
10	Blue clay, holding iron balls........................	65
10	Fine yellow clay, holding iron balls.....................	75
	Thin bed of solid sandstone which seemed to be *Triassic*, perhaps not *in situ*.	
5	feet of Chester Valley limestone (no more limestone)	80
	Struck top of *Potsdam S.S.*........................	at 90

Water first struck at about 40′ down ; at first, muddy ; soon cleared on standing ; supply soon exhausted by the pump ; merely surface water.

No more water until depth of 81′.

Chalybeate water at 81′ ; immediately rose in the dry well to within 32′ of surface. Pumped this water, 60,000 gallons, during 5 days (steam pump). Then iron water exhausted, and clear water took its place. Iron water evidently came from clay beds holding iron balls ; some of which were brought up by the drill. Well cased (6″ iron pipe) to 83′.

Water stratum evidently lies between the clays and the rock floor.

Artesian Well in the Mica Schist of Philadelphia.

Notes by O. C. S. Carter.

Drilled by H. W. Kelsey, of the Oriental Bath Co., 1104 Walnut street, Philadelphia, for the supply of the baths.

Drillings at every 10 feet examined under a lens ; elements arranged below in order of their abundance in the specimen pumping. No rock seen except mica schist and gneiss. Only *traces* of feldspar noticed above 170. Colorless muscovite mica makes all the strata nearly white from 160 to 210. The biotite mica darkens the strata from 210 to 266. *No hornblende seen in any of the pumpings.*

20′	Clay, the Philadelphia brick clay..................to	20′
46	Gravel (thin layer of clay at bottom)................	66
34	Mica schist; milky quartz, biotite mica, occasional speck of muscovite mica, no feldspar............	100
20	Mica schist ; muscovite mica and trans. quartz	120
10	Mica schist ; biotite, quartz and muscovite...........	130
10	Mica schist ; quartz, muscovite, some little biotite....	140
10	Mica schist ; biotite, quartz, some little muscovite....	150
10	Mica schist ; coarse fragments of quartz and muscovite.	160
10	Gneiss ; coarse fragments of pink orthoclase, muscovite and quartz ; *first appearance of feldspar*......	170
10	Gneiss ; quartz, orthoclase feldspar and muscovite....	180
10	Gneiss ; muscovite, quartz, biotite, little feldspar.....	190
10	Gneiss ; muscovite, orthoclase and quartz............	200
10	Gneiss ; muscovite, orthoclase and transparent quartz	210

10′ Mica schist; quartz, biotite, muscovite .... 220′
10 Mica schist; biotite, quartz, muscovite 230
20 Mica schist; biotite and quartz..................... 250
15 Mica schist; biotite, muscovite, quartz 265

Few crevices; strata tightly packed; first rock water struck at 120; rose to 28′ beneath surface; pumped 5 quarts a stroke, 80 strokes a minute, 6000 gallons an hour; level falls 20′ after one hour's pumping.

Water a little hardened by sulphates and some iron.

Artesian Well in Mica Schist, near Radnor, Delaware County, Pa.

Notes by O. C. S. Carter.

Drilled on M. Wheadley's farm, in Chester county, Pa., in the *hydromica schist* of the South Valley Hill belt.

30′ Sharp white quartz fragments.....................to 30′
58 Schist, very micaceous, silver gray, soapy........... 88

Water crevices struck at 70 and 85; water rose only 10 feet in the well, and stood at 70 feet below the surface; yield, only 120 gallons per hour; drops 5 feet after pumping five hours.

Feldspar Bed in Laurentian (?) Gneiss.

By Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, May 1, 1891.)

The feldspar quarry is opened on the east bank of the Schuylkill river, between Lafayette Station and Spring Mill, where the Reading Railroad (Norristown branch) and the Pennsylvania Railroad (Schuylkill Valley division) run side by side under the bluff outcrops of syenite and gneiss supposed to be of Laurentian or Archaic age, bordered on the south by C. E. Hall's Chestnut Hill Mica Schist belt of undetermined age.

A small stream cutting down into the Schuylkill just south of the quarry marks the contact of the mica schist and syenite and gneiss belts. About 100 yards north of the quarry is the granite vein described in Prof. H. D. Roger's *Geology of Pennsylvania*, 1858.

The county road runs between the railroad tracks and the bluff, and the feldspar bed is quarried for 35 feet alongside of the road. The feldspar

is also exposed between the road and the railroad for 10 feet more, making the bed at least 45 feet broad; the highest point of rock exposed is 15 feet above the level of the county road.

The dip of the feldspar bed is northward (40°) beneath the gneiss.

The direction of the feldspar bed does not conform to the strike of the belts of gneiss, but, on the contrary, is transverse, *i. e.*, nearly north and south.

The feldspar is orthoclase, of light pink color, with an occasional streak of white granular quartz running through it. Some of the large masses quarried out contain considerable quartz. Large masses of biotite mica are occasionally met with in quarrying; but the occurrence of biotite is not general through the rock.

The quarry was opened in the summer of 1886, and about 30 tons taken out and sold to the potteries at Trenton, etc. It is the only feldspar quarry in Montgomery county. The quarry in Delaware county is described in the Annual Report of the Geological Survey of Pennsylvania for 1886. A few others, in the States of Delaware, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts and Maine furnish all the feldspar manufactured into pottery in the United States, the total production from all the quarries, from 1882 to 1887, having been 14,000; 14,100; 10,900; 13,600; 14,900; 10,200 tons, valued respectively at \$70,000; \$71,112; \$55,112; \$68,000; \$74,500; \$56,100. The crude feldspar is valued at the Trenton potteries at about \$5 the long ton; and the pulverized feldspar at \$11; the quartz being carefully separated out.

A Fragment of Objectionable University-Extension Teaching.

By R. Meade Bache.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, May 15, 1891.*)

It need hardly be said, and yet, to obviate the possibility of misinterpretation in outside quarters of that which I am about to remark, it becomes necessary formally to declare that I have no intention to depreciate the cause represented by the well-concerted effort of University-Extension teaching to disseminate knowledge heretofore confined to the comparatively few. I could heartily wish that my theme admitted of no mention save of generalities, but thus treated it would not subserve the interest which I would gladly promote, by being brought home to the

minds of my hearers, upon whose individual influence partially rests the benefit which University-Extension teaching is capable of effecting. The attempt to correct incidental error is strictly correlated to endeavor to promulgate the truth, and if it be wise to seek to sow intellectual seed broadcast, then it must also be wise to select it carefully, and to eradicate the tares if any should appear, especially if the soil be virgin, possessing little previous vigorous growth to maintain itself against invasion of injurious crops that haply may be introduced and appear as fruitage of the untried field.

I was present on the evening of the 16th of February last, at Association Hall, in this city, at the lecture of Prof. Richard G. Moulton, of Cambridge, England, on Dumas' *Monte Cristo* as a companion study to *Prospero*, and there heard his attempt at the demonstration of psychical analogies, similar to those which his Syllabus for other occasions included, between the respectively preternatural and supernatural elements in *Monte Cristo* and *The Tempest.* Yet, although I am a monist, believing that all existences, whether religious, philosophical, or scientific, form one intimately connected and coherent whole in nature, the sole barrier to the just and complete comprehension of which condition lies in the feebleness of the human intellect, I also believe that, perforce of that infirmity, we are constrained to view things in the strictest categories, and that we judge of them only more or less clearly by rigid comparison of their immanent likeness and unlikeness; and hence, although, as was said of Dean Swift by one of his lady-loves, he could write well if he chose to about a broom-stick, it is not, in my view, philosophically permissible to any one to take a broom-stick for a rational flight, and from its suggestion superpose a witch, and with her scale the empyrean, opening up to vision all earthly things below in a maze with relation to themselves and the outspreading heavens.

If by accident, and it was of the purest, for I was invited, and did not go of my own motion to hear Mr. Moulton, some of his teachings have become my text, so much the worse for him, or mayhap for me, if I should meet dissent from my propositions. But I make light of the possible consequences to myself, in view of what I deem the justice of my cause. In the interest of that truth which is said to be mighty and always to prevail, of which, however, I have my serious doubts, I speak frankly in

what I deem the interest of Philadelphia, which I love; of literature, which I also love, and of art generally, which has been my never-ceasing pleasure throughout life. Mr. Moulton's merits are enthusiasm and elocutionary ability, his faults extravagance and defective logical perception. The result is seen in unbridled imagination soaring over the fields of literature, where, however entertaining, he is not a safe guide to dwellers on the average plane of life in mind, thought, training, and all that goes to form the individual as he stands. I proceed, after this necessary preamble, to the discussion of a few statements made by him on the occasion to which I have referred, not relating at all to the point that I have mentioned, but involving what many others as well as myself deem the greatest heresy against tenets fundamental in literature, safely leaving to the sober second-thought and calm review of the literarily educated among his audience the justification of the opinion that I have expressed as to the general tenor and defect of his instruction.

Mr. Moulton opened his lecture with the strange remark that, whereas his own regard is especially reserved for literature in itself, doubtless that of the great majority of his hearers was concentrated upon the author. This was wholly irreconcilable with the fact of the presence of the large audience that greeted him upon that occasion for the ostensible purpose for which it had assembled. Interest in authors, among any portion of the reading public, is always subordinate to interest in literature. That public stands in exactly the same category, if not in exactly the same relation, to literature and authors, as does Mr. Moulton himself. He himself could not, if he would, divest himself of interest in individual authors compatibly with being interested in their works, the one interest with everybody being exactly proportional to the other. He protested too much in his intended exaltation of literature, more than it is human to feel, for there is, upon the assumption of individual love for literature, no other category than one inclusive of the highest teacher and the lowliest scholar, in all that regards the relativeness of literature and the author. If Mr. Moulton's statement were correct, as representing a possible condition of mind, it would be futile to address any mixed audience assembled for literary entertainment and instruction, except by first endeavoring to convert its component individuals from the error of their way of

thinking, that the author is more interesting than his book. But that was evidently not the intention of the lecturer, as set forth in his printed Syllabus of the lecture course, but to make critical study of specimens of the higher literature, upon the assumption of general knowledge of, love for, or at least capacity to learn to appreciate, the productions of master minds in the various provinces of literary art.

A statement in Mr. Moulton's lecture, much more worthy of notice, however, because it involved a dangerous thing to say before a mixed audience, without due qualification to forestall any possible misunderstanding as to the limited reach of the declaration, was contained in his repudiation of all authority for the laws of grammar, clinching the assertion by the remark that in England they do not "set so much store as we in America by Lindley Murray." He declared unreservedly, and proceeded to argue, that so-called laws of grammar are not binding, so repeatedly enforcing the point by using the expression of one of his correspondents, whom he cited as charging that Browning's Caliban "speaks bad grammar," as to impress the listener with the belief that he himself regards that expression as good English. That the sentiment was quite agreeable to some scattered groups among the audience was very evident from the gentle murmur of assent and the incipient stir of applause that arose among them. He went on to say that the popular impression that grammatical law is binding arises from confounding two different senses in which the word is used as defining two diverse things. Now, the idea of law, as everywhere apprehended, however imperfectly formulated as a statement of fact or obligation, however even provisional, has, as a term, but one signification. Relating to physical phenomena, it contains the affirmation of correspondence between cause and effect, authoritative with man. Relating to man, whether as supernally or humanly ruled, it contains the assertion of authority as defining conditions and imposing upon him obedience. Whether, then, the idea is expressed with reference to nature beyond or within man's control, the term corresponds with it, and always relates to that which he regards as authoritative.

Most unfortunate for Mr. Moulton's plea was the distinction which he attempted to draw between legislative laws and the law of custom in language. The essential difference between them,

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than the greatest type of author may be obscure and must be personal through his writings, but to address the whole world, to be greatest in literary art, one must so dominate it in clearness and impersonality as though behind the Olympian clouds, where almost alone stands Shakespeare. The grand epic traits of Homer, all but his equal among the immortals, admit of no direct comparison between them, but speaking broadly, there is nothing to choose between them on the score of clearness and impersonality.

It is recognized that what is superlatively great in art is known as such by all orders of men: the fact is thus determined. Before such works no veil of obscurity hangs, but supreme greatness in them is revealed, if not equally, at least as a presence to all men. This law of perception, however, does not exist for science and the highest scientific men. Herbert Spencer has toiled through a long life generally unknown, and wholly unremunerated with this world's goods, although, with well-poised brain and feet firmly set on logical procedure, he has made a march of progress, barring his agnosticism, joined by thousands who have taken fire from his torch to millions beyond unaware of whence came the light. But art is for all the world, by the simple avenues of sense, with much or little intellect, while science, the possession of the few, must ever remain beyond the ken of the multitude save in diluted forms of knowledge. Yet, in entire forgetfulness of the present civilized standpoint in science, Mr. Moulton declared that the savage's knowledge of nature far exceeds that of the civilized man. The ground taken for the assertion was the savage's recognized capacity in woodcraft, following trails, and other skillfulness of the most primitive sort, forced upon him by his daily needs, and not to be spoken of in the same breath with the larger acquaintance with nature possessed by civilized man for centuries, especially that represented by the late wondrous civilized advance through study of the highest physical laws.

The *omne admirari* is as pernicious a phase of the human intelligence as is that of the *nil admirari* attitude of mind. To be catholic in taste is not to embrace all creeds and proselytize to every faith. To enjoy truly, with exalted sense, is to discriminate. To have the highest æsthetic enjoyment throughout life depends upon holding one's self in the attitude of receptivity for

all that may appeal to one within the present accepted canons of good taste, and beyond, even if it be unfamiliar, for genius is ever enlarging the bounds of taste. The canons of good taste at a given moment of time represent but the evolutionary point of general human advance, beyond which one cannot proceed sanely by leaps, but led by genius, may enter untrodden space beyond. Except the fundamental, there are no absolutely fixed canons of good taste in art but the academical, and they are constantly invaded, for the grand jury of the world is always in session to decide upon works of art, and its decision is final. The life of the individual artist may pass away unrecognized and unrequited, but the span that the longest life compasses is short in comparison with that which may be for all time. To attempt to defend the greatest author at every point, to find no blemish even in obscurity, to make human imperfection flawless, is mistaken zeal. One of the most conspicuous marks of genius is the inequality of its productions. Look for confirmation anywhere, amid many cases that might be cited, to Goethe, to Victor Hugo. In a single work, *Wilhelm Meister*, are to be met palaces and huts, jostling each other. What a great gulf divides *L'Homme qui Rit* from *Nôtre Dame de Paris*. Compare George Eliot's *Romola*, gem of the purest water, with *Daniel Deronda*, and thence descend in our survey to the depths of ineffable dullness in *The Impressions of Theophrastus Such*. Truly, there is difference in kind between these, making intimate comparison between them impossible; but it is purely between degree as limited by kind as kind that I am instituting the comparison. Is each production of these authors as good of its kind as is another by the same author of a different kind, within its kind; and is not one wholly unworthy of another? that is a fair consideration. Within the very same kind, however (let us put the question to a crucial test), shall we, out of love for Shakespeare, say that even he is always equal to himself? Instance any men and women of genius, and it can easily be shown, if they produced much, that side by side with great performance lies what was beneath their greatness to produce, if it go no further (but it does go much further) than such lapse where even Homer nods. Vainly, because we love an author, would we claim for him equality in all his creation. If so attempting, we really seek to strip him of one of the characteristics that shed, not lustre, but a side-light, on the title to his fame.

what I deem the interest of Philadelphia, which I love; of literature, which I also love, and of art generally, which has been my never-ceasing pleasure throughout life. Mr. Moulton's merits are enthusiasm and elocutionary ability, his faults extravagance and defective logical perception. The result is seen in unbridled imagination soaring over the fields of literature, where, however entertaining, he is not a safe guide to dwellers on the average plane of life in mind, thought, training, and all that goes to form the individual as he stands. I proceed, after this necessary preamble, to the discussion of a few statements made by him on the occasion to which I have referred, not relating at all to the point that I have mentioned, but involving what many others as well as myself deem the greatest heresy against tenets fundamental in literature, safely leaving to the sober second-thought and calm review of the literarily educated among his audience the justification of the opinion that I have expressed as to the general tenor and defect of his instruction.

Mr. Moulton opened his lecture with the strange remark that, whereas his own regard is especially reserved for literature in itself, doubtless that of the great majority of his hearers was concentrated upon the author. This was wholly irreconcilable with the fact of the presence of the large audience that greeted him upon that occasion for the ostensible purpose for which it had assembled. Interest in authors, among any portion of the reading public, is always subordinate to interest in literature. That public stands in exactly the same category, if not in exactly the same relation, to literature and authors, as does Mr. Moulton himself. He himself could not, if he would, divest himself of interest in individual authors compatibly with being interested in their works, the one interest with everybody being exactly proportional to the other. He protested too much in his intended exaltation of literature, more than it is human to feel, for there is, upon the assumption of individual love for literature, no other category than one inclusive of the highest teacher and the lowliest scholar, in all that regards the relativeness of literature and the author. If Mr. Moulton's statement were correct, as representing a possible condition of mind, it would be futile to address any mixed audience assembled for literary entertainment and instruction, except by first endeavoring to convert its component individuals from the error of their way of

thinking, that the author is more interesting than his book. But that was evidently not the intention of the lecturer, as set forth in his printed Syllabus of the lecture course, but to make critical study of specimens of the higher literature, upon the assumption of general knowledge of, love for, or at least capacity to learn to appreciate, the productions of master minds in the various provinces of literary art.

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* Biographical Memoir of Dr. James Sykes. By Gouverneur Emerson, M.D. Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences, February, 1823.

Mankind is subject to epidemic crazes of anticipation, admiration and repudiation. The Mississippi Scheme and the South-Sea Bubble, blown to hugest dimensions by the breath of millions, sailed upward until burst by continued puffs of praise. Within a very short period Brown-Séquard, who did not even claim that which the public attributed to him, was raised heavenward, then dropped to earth. Koch was most wisely moderate in statement; all to no purpose when the imagination of the public set sense aflame. Even tulips, two centuries ago, and orchids, but yesterday, have each had with the proverbial dog their little exalted day; that of the dog, as no longer individual, but collective in popular admiration, reigning at present throughout the whole Anglo-Saxon world. In what an unæsthetic general atmosphere of judgment of excellence we live we must perceive upon reflection that, through jaqueminots, la France, and other types, it took fashion at last to find out, and that but lately, the beauty of the rose. But this especially modern development of factitious rapture is not in the real interest of anything good, least of all in that of cultivating popular taste for art. The best interests of that cultivation lie in appreciative recognition of greatness, though careful discrimination and frankest acknowledgment of imperfections as well as merits in a work of art, while at bottom thankfulness is felt for the gift that has been added to the sum of blessings. It is not ennobling to kiss with equal fervor the clay feet and the golden brow of our idol. Gladly let us welcome him among our household gods; remembering, however, that after all, he is human, but all the more lovable for being so. Let us avoid lauding his imperfections, as did Mr. Moulton, when he claimed merit even for the obscurity of Browning, because, as he said, it arises "from excessive sight." The defense is inadmissible; for art depends upon perspective, upon rigid selection, involving therefore exclusion, converging upon finest limitation, resulting in ideal form evolved from void. He who in literature strives at any time to include, or does inadvertently include, in the treatment of a theme, more in quantity or in quality than its development can symmetrically combine, has not then successfully raised the sleeping angel from the block of marble. Virgil, with excessive requirement of his own exquisite skill, well understood the demands of the highest art, when he willed that at his death the work which he had not yet published should perish; for he

as well as others of the ancients knew well, as the French of modern times know and strive to practice, that it is in perfection of form that literary as well as all other art chiefly and almost wholly resides; and in literature, unlike other art, which is limited, form includes color, and even the "concord of sweet sounds," and all else that, from delicacy to robustness, through human strength and weakness, appeals to the wide range of affections in the responsive heart of man.

Whoso likes, in poetry or prose, unformed, elusive idea, that sparkles evanescently with promise but half-redeemed in uncoördinated thought, either enjoys the contemplation of his own profundity, not the author's work, or else is himself so much poet or reasoner that, from fitful gleams of light, as one may think out a whole heaven, inspired by the droning from a stupid pulpit, he shapes to suit his fantasy what, not the bard nor other writer, but his unconscious self lends to the satisfaction of his soul. In either case is self-analysis wanting, which would prove to such misguided beings that works which so inspire are not of art, but of art's inchoate suggestion; a pleasant sketch perchance, but not the finished picture, in which they themselves complete the task; for although in literature the delicately, not the mathematically expressed idea, combines the finest finish with its form, it is also true that in it all should ever tend from airy nothing, not thither to revert, or never issue. Admirably Browning says:

> "Fancy with fact is just one fact the more;
> To wit, that fancy has informed, transpierced,
> Thridded and so thrown fast the facts else free,
> As right through ring and ring runs the djerid
> And binds the loose, one bar without a break."

But, just as in all literary art the djerid, *fancy*, is needed truly to bind fact together in all-inclusive bond, so also in all literary art is needed the first of facts, the djerid, *form*, to "bind the loose," in parts and whole, as one "without a break."

A Sketch of the Life of Dr. Gouverneur Emerson.

By W. S. W. Ruschenberger, M.D.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, May 15, 1891.)

Descriptions of the peculiar attainments of members of the American Philosophical Society, and of their labors to increase and diffuse knowledge of truth of any kind, are interesting features in the Society's annals. For such reason it has long been a practice to have prepared a suitable notice or memoir of every resident member soon after his death.

At the close of his life Dr. Emerson had been a member of the Society more than forty-one years. He was warmly interested in its welfare, and took a more or less active part in its proceedings. Notwithstanding his worthiness of it, a tribute to his memory in the Society has not been recorded.

Just after his death, in 1874, it was suggested that I should prepare a notice of him. Inquiry at the time led to the belief that materials for a suitable memoir could not be easily obtained. Even among his intimate friends, Dr. Emerson was notably reticent about himself, never indulged in reminiscences of his past experience: in fact, his associates knew nothing of his life or career.

Recently, however, his near kinsmen have kindly opened sources of information, and now, after long delay, a sketch of his life and work, in sufficient detail for estimation of his character and measurement of his usefulness while living, is respectfully submitted.

Emerson is an ancient English surname and probably not hereditary.

The Emersons of Delaware sprang from a respectable English parentage, and were among the early colonists of Penn's province. They were all farmers, and proprietors of their farms.

The grandfather of the subject of the following sketch, Gouverneur—familiarly called Govey—Emerson, his wife Sarah, born Manlove, and their six children, were received into membership of the Duck Creek Meeting of the Society of Friends in 1757.* His youngest son, Jonathan, born July 17, 1764, married Ann Bell in 1794.† They had seven children,

* Records of Duck Creek Meeting, Kent county, Del.

† *Genealogical Note.*—Gouverneur Emerson married Sarah Manlove, 1746.
Issue—Jacob, b. 1751; m. Sarah Stout.
Manlove, b. 1759; m. Susan Blundell.
Jonathan, b. 1764; m. Ann Bell.

Robert Bell m. Mary O'Brien of Ireland.
Issue—Henry, Robert, Thomas, John, Mary, Agnes, Lucy.
Henry, m. Elizabeth Lewis.
John, m. Mary Lewis; issue—Ann, Margaret, Mary, Lucy, Eliza L., Stephen.
Ann (Bell) m. Jonathan Emerson. Issue—Gouverneur, Sarah (died), Mary, Susan B., Manlove (died) and Ann Eliza.

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two sons and five daughters, the youngest of whom is the sole survivor. The eldest of them, Gouverneur Emerson, was born August 4, 1795, near Dover, Kent county, Del. In after-life he remembered with pleasure that when little more than seven years old he was permitted to roam in the woods with a gun.

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ever appointed, in the University. During this association a warm and enduring regard sprang up between them.

Dr. Robert Hutchinson Rose had purchased, in 1809, a hundred thousand acres of wild land,* which included the township of Silver Lake, near Montrose, the capital of Susquehanna county, Pa., and was endeavoring to attract settlers upon it. He and Prof. James were cordial friends. Possibly influenced by the Professor's good opinion of his young friend, Dr. Rose invited Dr. Emerson to be his family physician, to become a member of his household, and practise medicine in the neighborhood. Prof. James advised him to accept the offer, suggesting in support of his advice, that a settled occupation in the country would fortify his health, which at that time was slightly impaired.

Dr. Emerson arrived at Silver Lake about the end of September or beginning of October, 1816. He was a tall, slender man just past the twenty-first anniversary of his birth, and was, no doubt, hopefully forecasting the future of his career. Before he received Dr. Rose's invitation he had designed an excursion to the Northern States. After a survey of the position he was to occupy, he determined to delay beginning his work until after he had made his projected journey.

In a letter of seven closely-written foolscap pages, dated Silver Lake, Dec. 5, 1816, and addressed to his friend at home, Alexander L. Hayes,† he gives a full summary of his observations during his excursion.

He started alone on horseback from Silver Lake, October 15, 1816, and at the close of the next day reached Unadilla, a New York village, not very many miles beyond the northern boundary of Pennsylvania. There he was not a little surprised to learn that a Philadelphia banknote for $100, with which he had supplied himself to pay his traveling expenses, would be received only at a discount. He was obliged to give that note for ninety dollars in notes of New York banks. Travelers of the present time are not taxed in such manner, because our paper money has the same value everywhere in the United States.

He visited Schoharie, Schenectady, the Balstown Spa, Saratoga, and, passing over the Hudson river at Fish Neck, entered Vermont. From Rutland he crossed the Green Mountains to Montpellier and Danville; passed several days in Southern Canada, traversed New Hampshire and the province of Maine, and returned by the way of Waterford, Troy and Albany, to Silver Lake, after a ride of about 2000 miles.

Having been born and bred in the country, he naturally devotes a large part of his letter to descriptions of the soil and the agricultural value of lands which he saw on his way.

* Precisely, 99,200 acres. History of Susquehanna County, Pa. By Emily C. Blackman. Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger, Philadelphia, 1873.

† Alexander L. Hayes, son of Manlove Hayes by his first wife, was born in Sussex county, Del., March 7, 1793, and was President Judge of the Court of Common Pleas in Lancaster, Pa., from 1833 to 1849, when he resigned, and was again elected 1864 and died in office, 1873.

See, Biographical Encyclopedia of Pennsylvania. Philada., 1874.

In reference to the people he says : "The Yankees have a great deal of frankness about them. If they are very desirous of knowing your circumstances, and of course, inquisitive, they are willing to tell you their own. Knowledge, religion, civility and money are more equally diffused in New England than in the Middle and Southern States ; but there are not as many men of brilliant talents or true piety—more common civility but less polish, and few opulent men, and girls of course. * * * They have a fondness for title and distinction. The most respectable men by far are the tavern-keepers. * * * You will hear that Judge ——— keeps there, and that General ——— five miles this side, and that they are *nice* men ; a *nice* man and a fine Yankee are equivalent terms. * * * They call all kinds of vegetables sauce."

Dr. Emerson, who was probably the first physician settled there, practised his profession at Silver Lake nearly two years.

At the instance of a friend, Mr. Andrew Hodge, he was appointed, November, 1818, surgeon of a merchant ship, called the *Superior*, Captain John Hamilton, bound to China.

He joined the vessel, which had already dropped down the river, December 7, 1818. The weather was stormy and the wind adverse. The *Superior* did not get to sea till the 12th.

The cabin mess, composed of the officers of the ship and three passengers, counted eleven persons, a number quite sufficient to shield them from a sense of weariness or solitude.

Dr. Emerson kept a journal. A brief notice of the nature of sea-sickness is recorded the first day at sea.

On the 13th, out of sight of land, a brig from Prince's Island, coast of Africa, bound to Rhode Island, was spoken. She had been seventy days at sea and was short of water. As the quarantine laws were then very rigidly observed at Marseilles, the port to which the *Superior* was bound, to avoid risk of vitiating her clean bill of health which might be consequent upon direct personal communication with any vessel or place before reaching Marseilles, casks of water were thrown overboard and picked up by the brig.

On the 14th, being then in the Gulf stream, the Doctor notes in his journal the use of the thermometer in navigation.

January 26, 1819, the *Superior* arrived at Marseilles, thirty-five days from the Capes of the Delaware.

As soon as the ship entered the mole, the captain went to the Health Office, but was required to remain in his boat outside of the grate, and to throw his papers into a tub of vinegar presented to him, the object being to destroy any contagious matter they might contain. Letters brought for persons on shore, after being cut through in several places to give easy access to the vinegar, were treated in the same manner. Every vessel arriving was required to undergo quarantine. No person was permitted to land, and none to visit her from the shore. A guard was stationed on board to enforce observance of the rules. At the time the plague prevailed in the Barbary States.

A celebrated Dutch physician, Boerhaave, recommended distilled vinegar as an efficient remedy against putrid diseases. Vinegar was supposed to be antiseptic and therefore protective against all contagions. The hands of those who had to do with contagion were moistened with it, and their clothing and other objects were exposed to its vapors. During the plague of 1720, at Marseilles, it is said t at four convicted thieves, who were employed in caring for the sick, protected themselves from the contagion by the use of vinegar, and were granted their lives on condition that they would reveal the means they used to shield themselves in their perilous work. And hence, perhaps, came the preparation called "Thieves' vinegar."

But since modern studies of the processes of fermentation and putrefaction have led to the belief that they, as well as all contagions, are due to the presence of microscopic organisms, vegetal or animal, called mycroderms, bacilli, microbes, etc., vinegar has lost its antiseptic reputation.

Early on the morning of February 4, the Harbormaster came alongside of the *Superior*. Learning from the guard that no one on the ship was sick, he came on board; and, after disinfecting the officers and passengers in the cabin and the sailors in the forecastle, by exposing them to the pungent fumes of oxymuriatic acid gas (chlorine), he granted *pratique, i.e.*, liberty of the port. Then the ship was moved to the vicinity of the Custom House, and the gentlemen found quarters at the Hotel des Ambassadeurs.

After a sojourn of two months at Marseilles the *Superior* sailed April 5, and on the 15th anchored in Gibraltar bay; and was detained some time in quarantine, and afterwards many days waiting for a favorable wind. Before daybreak, May 6, 1819, the anchor was weighed and on the 7th the ship was fairly at sea.

August 1, the ship was anchored at Angier, Java, and on the 3d proceeded on her way. The anchor was let go again, Aug. 20, off Macao, where merchant ships bound to Canton were detained twenty-four hours. In the afternoon of the 21st a passport to proceed up the river was granted and a pilot sent on board. The ship started about half-past three o'clock P.M., and anchored in the Bocca Tigris sometime after midnight. The pilot landed the next morning to exhibit at the fort there the "chop" or permit to go up the river, and brought back two pilots and two Mandarins to remain on board till the ship reached Whampoa, the common anchorage of foreign ships trading at Canton. It is sixteen miles below the city. The *Superior* anchored in the evening of the 23d, and on the 26th, Dr. Emerson and fellow-voyagers were lodged in Swedes Factory at Canton.

In a letter to his mother, dated November 5, 1819, Dr. Emerson says: "After the first impressions of the abundant novelties wore off, the dull uniformity which followed became tedious, and time now appears to fly slowly."

He relates that in consequence of drinking Samshoo, a liquor prepared from rice, which in excess produces a fierce, maniacal intoxication, the crew of the *Superior* mutinied, and, in the absence of the captain, endeavored to kill the officers and take possession of the ship. Officers of other vessels lying near, immediately joined in the conflict. Some of the crew were knocked down and others stabbed. Eight of the ringleaders were put in irons, and fed on bread and water for ten days; and under such treatment became as subordinate as they always had been.

He gives account of an accident to himself which might have been serious, as follows:

"I went on board a ship where they kept a Spanish bloodhound. He was tied before I went on deck; but while sitting in conversation with some of my friends, he broke loose and sneaking alongside leaped into my face. The damage I sustained was a wound through the left lower eyelid, a deep cut on the temple, and one under my shoulder, together with a very black and inflamed eye, from all of which, I am happy to inform you, I have recovered. The dog is the most savage of his species. I escaped *very well considering*. He has injured others more seriously."

Referring to mosquitoes, he says: "I sleep under a net which lets the air circulate, but keeps out every kind of insect. You will be pleased to see it. I think the plan so ingenious and good that it will be adopted by many of our friends."

A plain implication from the Doctor's remark is that the mosquito net was a novelty to him in 1819, and not known in the neighborhood of his native place. Are we indebted to the Chinese for this invention?

The party finally left Canton for Whampoa, Nov. 22. The ship had been moved below the common anchorage when they reached her about noon. She arrived at Lintin on the 23d, and there found the U. S. frigate *Congress*, Capt. John D. Henley, said to have been the first American man-of-war to visit China. She anchored here Nov. 3, with many of the crew suffering from dysentery, ascribed to the water taken on board at Angier. Her presence aroused the suspicion of the Chinese authorities that it meant no good, and therefore they would not allow provisions to be furnished to her from Canton. The *Superior* brought several barrels of bread for her use, and other American merchantmen conveyed to her barrels of beef and pork.

On the 26th Nov. the *Superior* sailed from Lintin homeward bound.

On Saturday, Jan. 16, 1820, then in the Indian ocean, she was boarded from a Patriot privateer, said to be two months out from Buenos Ayres. She was armed with sixteen guns and had a crew of two hundred men.

Dr. Emerson, in his journal, says: "We first discovered her on Friday morning, about three miles off our starboard quarter, standing on the same course. The wind was light and unfavorable; a high head-swell further impeded our progress. Towards night the strange sail had gained upon us. We thought she showed a desire to speak. Every precaution seemed to have been taken to disguise her real character, by carrying

little sail, but we still suspected her of foul intentions. The night was dark, but she kept close to us and always in sight. In the morning, being off our weather quarter, within gunshot, she ran up a Spanish flag and fired a gun to bring us to. When close to us she backed her topsails, hauled down the Spanish and ran up the Patriot colors, at the same time opened all her weather ports, ran out her guns and brought her whole broadside of eight guns to bear upon us. The star-spangled banner floated over our quarterdeck.

"We now thought ourselves in a rather unpleasant situation. Although no declared enemy, still the many outrages and piracies under what was called the Patriot flag made us fear we might not fare better than others under similar circumstances.

"Her boat, rowed by a set of cutthroat-looking fellows, came alongside. The officer, apparently of inferior rank, wore a belt full of pistols and daggers. He was without a coat and barefooted. A renegade American attended him as interpreter. Having noted the ship's name, the latitude and longitude, etc., this accomplished officer directed his attention to our breakfast table, at which we had just intended to sit down. After refreshing himself and companions, the work of plunder began. They robbed us of many barrels of beef, pork, bread, butter, tea, silk, canvas, iron kettles, live stock, etc. The villains seemed to think themselves as fairly entitled to what they took as if they were purchasers. Whenever they came across anything they fancied, they said with all effrontery imaginable, 'Half for us and half for you,' adding from time to time, by way of consolation, 'We don't want to do you any harm.'

"They stated that they had a great deal of sickness on their ship and were throwing men overboard every day. They tried to induce me to join them, offering any rate of wages I might ask. They had a surgeon, but he was so indifferent that if in my way they would throw him overboard, and so get rid of him. His pay was a hundred dollars a month, but they would allow me any price I asked. Having consulted among themselves aside, they said that they had agreed not to force me to go with them against my will, although they were so much in want of medical assistance. According to their account the prevailing diseases on board were scurvy, dysentery, fever and ague, which had reduced what remained of the crew to a deplorable condition. Receiving a decidedly negative answer from me to their invitation, they next demanded a supply of medicines. I gave them some of a common kind, such as I thought might be useful to the wretches. The suspicious rascally officer took some of each one on the point of a dagger and thrust it into my mouth, watching me intently all the while, not satisfied till he had seen it on my tongue. This experience reminded me of a ludicrous scene in the "Honeymoon," where the doctor is forced to take his own medicine or be thrown out of the window.

"Though they robbed us in this unwarrantable manner, we were not treated as badly as we had expected. A strong breeze sprang up which

prevented their small boats from passing between the two vessels. They permitted us to make sail, but followed in our wake. The breeze stiffened to a gale. Night came, dark and stormy. We changed our course. On the following morning, to our great joy, nothing was seen of our piratical friend."

March 20, the *Superior* was boarded by a Delaware pilot, and in the evening of the 23d reached Chester, 117 days from Lintin. The ship had been absent from Philadelphia sixteen months.

His journal during the voyage contains testimony of industrious study and intelligent observation of all things at sea or on shore that impressed their images on his mind. Marine animals and aquatic birds, wherever they appeared were described. Drawings of some were made. These and original sketches of places seen, and maps of ports visited, with now and then an apt quotation from some poet, illustrate his pages.

He gives detailed accounts of what he saw at Marseilles and on his way to it. Whatever was new to the young traveler seemed to be charming. Appearances of people and things, famous localities with their historical associations combine to quicken curiosity and impart a glow of interest to his record of pageants viewed, of visits to hospitals, public buildings, theatres, museums, etc. Days were passed at Aix, St. Remy, Nimes, Avignon and Vaucluse. Many pages are given to descriptions of the remains of ancient Roman buildings, and of whatever interested him in those places.

He gives interesting accounts of Gibraltar, and describes a visit with a companion on horseback to Algeçiras, a port of Andalusia, six miles west of the famous fortress.

At Angier, in the Straits of Sunda, he tells of the many canoes and boats which came to the ship with fowls, fruits in great variety, vegetables, Java doves and Java sparrows in little bamboo cages, monkeys, paroquets, sea shells, and animals of the deer kind not taller than our domestic cat, and all being at moderate prices found ready sale among strangers. The natural, corporal characteristics of the Malays, seen here, their costume, language, as well as the appearance of their dwellings on shore, the mountain scenery, tropic vegetation, and political condition are sketched and commented upon.

Macao, Whampao, Canton, Lintin; pagodas, scenery and Chinese boat population along the river are in like manner noticed in detail.

The instruction derived from his observation and study, and the formative influence of his experiences during those months of separation from home, may not be definitely measured, but possibly to his alert mind they were as effective as the training of a college course.

With such preparation for work, on the 4th of August, 1820, the twenty-fifth anniversary of his birth, Dr. Emerson settled himself at No. 37 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, ready to give professional attention to any who might ask it. Possibly the time might have been opportune to introduce a young physician to business. Thirteen deaths from yellow

fever in the city had been reported during the season of 1819. The circumstance had created a vague apprehension of its recurrence, and may have induced people to appreciate practitioners of medicine more highly than when there was no prospect of needing them; and consequently, new candidates for practice might be more promptly noticed. The apprehension was realized to some extent; during the autumn of 1820, seventy-three persons died of the disease in the city.

Dr. Emerson was appointed an attending physician of the Philadelphia Dispensary, September 19, 1820, and resigned the office, May 21, 1822.

The City's Councils elected him a member of the Board of Health, March 12, 1823; and the Board appointed him its Secretary the same day. It is conjectured that he resigned three years later.

Prevention of the introduction and spread of smallpox in the city at that period attracted attention. Between January, 1818, and December, 1822, five years, only nine deaths from smallpox in the city had been reported. Fear that the disease might again enter the city was no longer manifest. For this reason it was supposed that vaccination had been generally neglected in the community.

The Board of Health was without authority to enforce measures to prevent the spread of the disease, then present, and for this reason its members were not willing to act; but at the instigation of Dr. Emerson the Board announced in the daily newspapers, three times, that smallpox was in the city and recommended all unprotected persons to be vaccinated without delay. The same year, November 15, 1823, the Board again warned the public of its danger, saying, "And as it is believed that there does exist among some an unjust prejudice against the practice of vaccination, the Board conceives it a duty to declare that the evidence afforded by our city in its long exemption from smallpox, together with the happy results which have followed the introduction of vaccination in all parts of the world, ought to be sufficient to convince the most incredulous of the salutary influence of this inestimable preventive."

Dr. Emerson submitted to the Board for approval and transmission to the Legislature a draft of a law and memorial on the subject. The proposed law in substance provided that vessels having smallpox on board should be quarantined on arrival in the same manner as those affected with other contagious diseases; that inoculation of smallpox should not be practised in any case without the sanction of the Board; and that authority already conferred on the Board of Health to deal with contagious diseases specified should be extended to smallpox.

After debating the subject at several meetings, the Board approved the memorial and draft of the proposed law, January 28, 1824, and transmitted them to the Legislature then in session. Although 160 deaths from smallpox had occurred in the city during 1823, a member of the House of Representatives retarded its action on the bill after it had passed the Senate by securing a seemingly innocent amendment to it, but which in fact provided that appointment to offices connected with the Board of Health

might be so made as to reward political and partisan services without regard to fitness of the candidate.

Mr. William Binder and Dr. Emerson were sent to Harrisburg to point out the effect of the amendment, and at the end of four days' work they secured its rejection and the enactment of the original bill. A copy of the act was duly delivered to the Board of Health, April 7, 1824.

His work as a member of the Board of Health, and his communications to the newspapers pointing out the risk of permitting those affected with smallpox to freely mingle with citizens, bear witness to Dr. Emerson's disinterested benevolence.

During 1824, deaths from smallpox in the city numbered 325. They were reduced to six in 1825, and to three in 1826. But these facts are not conclusive that the measures taken by the Board of Health during this period contributed to abate the prevalence of the disease, because, both prior and subsequent to this time, the rate of mortality from smallpox in the city, between 1807 and 1840, fluctuated in the same striking manner, as Dr. Emerson shows in his papers on *Medical and Vital Statistics*, published in "The American Journal of the Medical Sciences," November, 1827, November, 1831, and July, 1848.*

Dr. Emerson published in "The Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences," February, 1823, a brief and interesting memoir of Dr. James Sykes, who was his first preceptor in medicine; and a charming biographical memoir of Dr. Samuel Powel Griffitts, in the "North American Medical and Surgical Journal," in 1827.

July 6, 1832, Dr. Emerson, accompanied by Dr. Isaac Hays, visited the first case of "spasmodic cholera" that occurred in the city, his original description of which is in his commonplace book.

The disease became epidemic. Deaths from it numbered 1021. Dr. Emerson had charge of the Hospital for Orphans. As a token of appreciation of his service during the epidemic, a silver pitcher was presented to him, upon which is inscribed:

To
GOUVERNEUR EMERSON, M.D.,
The City of Philadelphia,
Grateful for his disinterested and intrepid exertions,
In a period of public calamity.
——:o:——
Transeat in exemplum.

He lectured in the Franklin Institute of Pennsylvania in 1833, on meteorology, and in 1834, he delivered another course on heat, electricity and galvanism, in connection with the subject.

* Mr. Pliny E. Chase reported at a meeting of the American Philosophical Society, February 5, 1869, and subsequently published, his *Comparative Statement of Mortality in the Society of Friends and that of the General Population of the City of Philadelphia from 1800 to 1869*, which, he states, was compiled largely from Dr. Emerson's papers.

Dr. Emerson was chosen to be a member of the American Philosophical Society, April 19, 1833. At stated meetings he made many brief communications on many subjects, which are recorded in Vol. i to Vol. xvi of the published Proceedings.*

He was one of the Councilors of the Society during ten years, from 1837 till the end of 1846.

He delivered a lecture *On the Advantages Derived from Cultivating the Arts and Sciences*, before the Philadelphia Mercantile Library Association, in the hall of the Musical Fund Society, December 8, 1839.

Among other points of interest, he states that the first successful attempt to cross the Atlantic in a vessel propelled by steam was made in a steamship called the *Savannah*, commanded by Moses Rogers, a native of Connecticut, but long a resident of Philadelphia. He sailed from New York, March 28, 1819, and arrived at Savannah, Ga., April 6, whence, after some delay, he crossed the ocean and arrived at Liverpool, June 20, having used steam or sails, as the wind permitted. From Liverpool the *Savannah* went to Elsineur, Stockholm, Cronstadt, St. Petersburg and Copenhagen. She then returned to Savannah, Ga., and thence went to Washington, D. C. Thus the practicability of crossing the Atlantic in a vessel propelled by steam was first demonstrated by an American.

In this connection he relates how Thomas Godfrey, an obscure citizen of Philadelphia, from a casual observation of the reflection of light, perceived the principle upon which he constructed, in 1730, the mariner's quadrant, and how he was robbed of the credit of his invention, and claims that Godfrey is entitled to "the lasting gratitude of all concerned, either directly or indirectly, in nautical pursuits, by inventing the only instrument that can securely guide the ship when far from land," and they should not permit only "a fragment of the most perishable stone" "to mark but for a few years longer the grave of Godfrey."

This appeal induced members of the Mercantile Association and others to construct a suitable monument to Godfrey's memory.

* The subjects upon which he made oral or written communications are as follows:

The production of electricity from the animal body; the production of electricity from steam; observations on Mower's paper on meteorology; excessive mortality of male children; effects of hot weather on infants; causes operative in changing the proportions of the sexes at birth; importance of phosphoric acid in agriculture; phosphorescent light produced in the diamond by friction; the compound action of the mental and optical faculties concerned in vision; cultivation of cotton in the Northern States; cleaning flax-fibre for market; extent of propagation of atmospheric vibrations produced by explosions of powder; manufacture of the sugar and syrup of sorghum; imphæ, or African sugar cane and cultivation of sorghum; improvements in Whitney's cotton gin; Robbini's process for preserving wood from decay by injecting into it vapor of coal tar; remarks on the part taken by the American Philosophical Society in connection with the Franklin Institute, to establish stations for meteorological observations; earthquake of October 20, 1870, reported November 4, 1870, as to expanse over which shocks were noted; lunar influence on wet and dry weather; ascription of the gradual translation of the peach-tree belt southward on the Atlantic coast to the progressive removal of the forests, causing exposure of the fruit trees to severe climatic fluctuations.

The closing paragraph of this interesting lecture is here cited as a fair sample of its style and tone.

"I hope I have said enough to prove that for prosperity and security, nations are mainly dependent upon the intellectual capacities and acquirements of their citizens. We have never known or heard of one that has not experienced its days of trial, and it cannot be supposed that our own country, whose hills and valleys now rejoice in the possession of peace and abundance, can always be exempt from calamity. If ever driven by adverse fortune to fearful extremity, happy will it be for her, if, in that day, like France at the crisis referred to, or like England—sustained during her long and dreadful conflicts by the resources furnished through her Watt—be rescued by her philosophers! Let us, therefore, like France, and the mighty people from whom we chiefly spring, use all our efforts to foster and diffuse the arts and sciences, and to banish the word *impossibility* from our vocabulary."

Dr. Emerson delivered an address, June 1, 1843, at Laurel Hill Cemetery on the completion of an unostentatious monument erected to the memory of Thomas Godfrey.

The reason for this tribute is stated in the address, substantially as follows:

One day while an ingenious young man, Thomas Godfrey, a glazier, was replacing a pane in a window on the north side of Arch street, opposite to a pump, a girl after filling her pail placed it on the sidewalk. Turning towards it he saw that the image of the sun was reflected from the window into the bucket of water, and from it back to his eye.* This simple observation led him to study the law of the reflection of light, and to invent a quadrant with speculums to take the distances of stars which he supposed might be of service at sea. The same year, 1730, he had made his reflecting instrument.† One was taken to the West Indies and used during the voyage to ascertain the latitude. It was brought back to Philadelphia before the end of February, 1731. The practical value of the instrument was thus demonstrated.

Although James Logan, in May, 1732, described the mariner's quadrant constructed by Godfrey in a letter to the celebrated mathematician, Dr. Edmund Halley, then President of the Royal Society of London, he did not obtain credit for his invention. It is believed that Dr. Halley

* John F. Watson, in his "Annals of Philadelphia," states this incident somewhat differently. According to his account, which seems to be accurate, Godfrey was glazing at Stenton, the residence of James Logan, and noticed the reflection of the sun's image from the window to a piece of fallen glass and from it to his eye. He immediately went into Mr. Logan's library and took from the shelf a volume of Newton's works to consult. Mr. Logan entered almost at the same time, and asked him the object of his search, and was much pleased with Godfrey's ingenuity, and from that time became his zealous friend.

In those days glazing was done by soldering the panes into the frame work. Glaziers were also plumbers, and did not paint.

† He lent one to Joshua Fisher for trial in his surveys of the Delaware. See Watson's "Annals of Philadelphia."

suppressed Mr. Logan's letter, and communicated the description of Godfrey's quadrant to Hadley, a mathematical instrument maker in London, who, after making slight mechanical changes in the instrument, obtained a patent for it. In this way Godfrey's invention came to be unjustly called Hadley's quadrant.

Dr. Emerson establishes Godfrey's right to priority of invention on the testimony of James Logan, Benjamin Franklin, Peter Collinson and others.

Thomas Godfrey was born in Bristol township, near Germantown, on his father's farm of 150 acres, in 1704, and died in 1749, and was buried there.* He was fairly educated, and was a member of Franklin's famous Junto. He taught himself to read Latin.

Mr. John F. Watson, the annalist, convinced of the wrong done to Godfrey, sought his grave, ascertained the inscription which had become illegible on the gravestone, and in 1838, at his own expense, had the remains with those of his wife, father and mother transferred to Laurel Hill Cemetery.

The Mercantile Library Association and certain inhabitants of Germantown jointly contributed means to erect a monument to Godfrey, the completion of which was the occasion of Dr. Emerson's address.

Possession of several hundred patrimonial acres in Kent county, Del., accounts for his attention to agricultural affairs. He made numerous and extensive experiments to ascertain the comparative value of different fertilizers. He erected a building on Frankford creek, Philadelphia, in which was manufactured, under the direct management of a Frenchman named Jourdan, a fertilizer called Jourdan's phosphate. This product was extensively used during several years. In 1844 or '45, two tons of Peruvian guano were brought to Philadelphia as a sample. At his suggestion he and his friend, Mr. D. B. Cummins, purchased each a ton and introduced it to the farmers of Delaware. On one of his farms he constructed a mill for crushing bones by horse power. The work was imperfectly done; but by treating the crushed bones with sulphuric acid and mingling the product with ashes and fine earth a fertilizer was produced which proved to be a good substitute for Peruvian guano, and cost much less. By observation and experiment he ascertained, in 1849, that the delightful and peculiar flavor of our so-called grass butter is due to the sweet-scented vernal grass—*Anthoxanthum odoratum*—which flourishes in pasture fields till about the end of May, and upon which the cows feed. He obtained from this sweet vernal grass an essential oil, and ascertained that it contains *benzoic acid*, upon which its flavor depends; and that a small quantity of benzoic acid administered to a cow imparted to the butter made from her milk the same flavor it has while sweet vernal grass forms part of her feed.† He delivered appropriate addresses before horticultural and agri-

* Watson's "Annals of Philadelphia."

† See, Letter, Oct. 31, 1849, from Dr. Emerson to the Commissioner of Patents. Report of the Commissioner of Patents for the year 1849, Part II—Agriculture—pp. 372–75.

cultural societies at several places in Delaware and Pennsylvania, and published a pamphlet on the cultivation of cotton in the Middle States. He edited *The Farmer's Encyclopedia and Dictionary of Rural Affairs*, an octavo volume of 1173 pages, illustrated by seventeen plates, which was published by Carey & Hart, in 1844. In adapting it to American use, Dr. Emerson added to the original English text about thirty per cent. of the volume.

Although attentive to whatever related to agricultural improvements, he was seriously interested in medical affairs.

In 1845 the New York State Medical Society invited the medical institutions of the country to appoint delegates to meet in the city of New York on the first Tuesday of May, 1846, and form a National Medical Convention to devise measures to promote the common interests of the medical profession and improve medical education. Many prominent physicians, representing medical bodies in different parts of the United States, were present. Dr. Emerson, one of the delegates from the Philadelphia Medical Society, was with them.

On organizing the meeting it was found that 183 delegates from medical societies in sixteen of the twenty-nine States were duly accredited, and that seventy-five of them were from New York. This partial and unequal representation led a delegate to propose that the Convention should at once adjourn *sine die*. His proposition was not accepted. After due deliberation officers were elected, and committees were appointed to prepare a plan of organization, etc., and among them a committee to prepare a code of medical ethics to govern the medical profession of the United States. Dr. Emerson was appointed a member of it.

The several committees were instructed to report at a meeting of the Convention to be held on the first Wednesday of May, 1847, in Philadelphia.

The National Medical Convention met at the appointed time, May 5. Of 239 delegates elected to it from twenty-two States, including the District of Columbia, 175 were present.

The committees appointed in New York presented their reports, which were duly considered.

The Convention, by a resolution adopted May 7, became the American Medical Association. The new organization elected officers, appointed standing committees and adjourned to meet in Baltimore on the first Tuesday of May, 1848.

Dr. Emerson participated in the creation of the American Medical Association. In a note written by him on the cover of a copy of it, he claims that the Code of Medical Ethics was compiled exclusively by Dr. Isaac Hays and himself. The Association still holds its annual meetings, always to the advantage of the medical profession, and is recognized as authority on questions of medical policy in the United States.

Dr. Emerson was a member of its first Committee on Publication, 1847, and served on till 1853; of the Committee on Medical Sciences, and con-

tributed to its report of 1850, Vol. iii, pp. 91-94, "Observations on Vital Statistics;" of the Committee on Hygiene, 1851; and of the Committee of Arrangements, 1855.

Dr. Emerson was elected a fellow of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, February, 1847. He never contributed to its Transactions. He was elected a delegate from the College to the American Medical Association in 1849, and in 1858; and to the National Quarantine and Sanitary Convention in 1857, and 1858.

He was a member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia from August, 1858; of the Philadelphia County Medical Society from 1857, of which he was President; and of the Medical Society of the State of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Emerson's medical practice from about 1828 to 1840 was lucrative and extensive. His interest in agricultural affairs, always notable, gradually increased with the lapse of time, and his interest in medical affairs gradually abated till he relinquished the practice about the year 1857.

Dr. Emerson, by invitation, began to live with Mr. Henry Seybert, at No. 926 Walnut street, in May, 1856. Apartments in the house were assigned to each proportionately. Dr. Emerson was the caterer, though they did not mess at the same table, and kept a detailed account of the household expenses which were periodically and equally shared. They lived together in perfect harmony eighteen years—till Dr. Emerson died.

Mr. Henry Seybert and Dr. Emerson were warm friends. Their close association is notable because their pursuits and aims in life were wide apart. Their mental characteristics were quite different. They were alike in condition. Both were unmarried, and both in easy circumstances. In some respects their tastes and ways were the same, simple, economical.

Dr. Emerson had a working knowledge of botany, mineralogy, geology and physics. Mr. Seybert had been educated in Paris, and trained in the School of Mines to be a chemist and mineralogist, and after his return home did some good work. In these scientific paths they were congenial. But Mr. Seybert was deeply imbued with religious sentiment.

While he was in Paris mesmerism attracted public attention, and he became interested in spiritualism.

He had read that "it is easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven." His construction of this sentence made him unhappy. He was so much tormented by the thought that all his attempts to lead a good life were useless as regards *future* existence because *he was rich*, that he consulted pious men on the subject, and among them the Archbishop of Rouen. By them he was assured that the sentence was addressed to the *sinful* rich *only*, and not to those who gave of their goods liberally to the poor.* Whether his many charities were prompted more by disinterested consideration for others than by this assurance is conjectural. Be this as it may,

* Obituary Notice of Henry Seybert, by Moncure Robinson. Read before the American Philosophical Society, Oct. 5, 1883.

Mr. Seybert was known for his charity and public spirit,* but most distinguished by his deep interest in a supposition or doctrine that after death and disintegration of his body by natural decay or cremation, a man's soul, wearing the carnal appearance of himself, may, at any time, be made manifest to the living through the medium of specially endowed persons, and in this manner communication with the world of spirits may be held. In this modern spiritualism he was a staunch believer. Shortly before his death he gave to the University of Pennsylvania $60,000 to found a chair of philosophy, on condition that the University should appoint a commission to investigate "all systems of morals, religion or philosophy which assume to represent the truth, and particularly of modern spiritualism." †

While Mr. Seybert was engaged in the study of spiritualism, Dr. Emerson, who had no respect for his friend's belief, was occupied in endeavoring to improve agricultural methods and in cultivating his several farms in Delaware.

His mother, Mrs. Ann Hayes, died in 1862, aged 86 years. Her long life was exemplary in every sense, unselfish and continuously kind and charitable. The positions occupied by her children are significant of the mother's attention and care for their welfare. To her Dr. Emerson late in life ascribed his first love for the British classical writers.

Society in Philadelphia was discordant at the outbreak of the great Rebellion, because the interests and affiliations of many of its residents were in the South and with the rebels. Those persons were openly defiant, threatening and at times belligerent. To determine if possible who were and who were not to be trusted, a few loyal men held midnight conclaves

* Among acts which may be ascribed to his public spirit was Mr. Seybert's unsolicited gift to the city. He substituted a new for a good old clock and bell which had long well served to ring out the hours, joyful news as well as alarms, from the State House steeple to very far-off dwellers in the city. Unexpectedly the sound of the Seybert bell is comparatively very feeble, scarcely audible more than 500 feet in any direction during the busy hours of the day, or at any time when there is a moderate breeze.

In the following humerous stanza, its author makes use of this circumstance to contrast the "clash and jingle" of St. Mark's chime of bells which greatly disturbed the neighbors at the time:

"There's a bell whose swinging gives out no ringing,
And I hear no dinging in the State House yard;
And where its rolling looks like tolling
I stand and tremble lest my hearing's hard;
For, with steeple rocking and hammer knocking,
And people mocking,
I hear no more
The low dull mutter
Those dumb lips utter
Than the stone Washington before the door."

† Preliminary Report of the Commission appointed by the University of Pennsylvania to Investigate Modern Spiritualism, in accordance with the bequest of the late Henry Seybert (page 5). J. B. Lippincott Company, Phila., 1887.

Henry Seybert died March 3, 1883, aged 82 years.

which ultimately resulted in the organization of the Union League of Philadelphia, December 27, 1862, the members of which were pledged to "unqualified loyalty to the government of the United States and unwavering support of its efforts for the suppression of Rebellion." *

Dr. Emerson, who was elected a member February 16, 1863, daily visited the Union League and participated in its proceedings till the end of his life.

Dr. Emerson did not devote his time and thought exclusively to the practice of medicine and agriculture. He was interested in questions of political economy, social science. He translated the second edition of Le Play's "Organization of Labor," a learned and valuable contribution to the literature of the subject. This work, the last from his pen, was published in 1872.

He died very suddenly in his office, July 2, 1874, near the end of the 79th year of age. His grave is next to that of Thomas Godfrey, Laurel Hill Cemetery.

He bequeathed his ample estate, including several farms, which together contain more than a thousand acres of arable land in Delaware, to his kinsmen.

His long life was virtuously spent, and so far he was above the bulk of mankind. Seemingly always under the influence of his early Quaker training by his mother, never manifesting the least pretension to piety, or solicitude about his future existence, his daily conduct was shaped in obedience to the precepts of the Decalogue and of Christianity. Naturally modest and considerate of the rights of others, he was never aggressive. A dignified and courteous demeanor, varied attainments and the easy flow of his conversation made him a welcome and frequent guest in the society of good and cultivated people.

A genius for persistent labor never permitted his talents, which were far above the average, to be idle. His career was marked by habitual industry and useful work rather than by special achievement in any of his pursuits. Though not a discoverer, or a great leader in science, his exemplary conduct and benevolent labors entitle him to general approbation, and his memory to our kindly respect.

Appendix.

A list of Dr. Gouverneur Emerson's publications :

"A Biographical Memoir of Dr. James Sykes, February, 1823." "Chapman's Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences."

"Biographical Memoir of Dr. Samuel Powel Griffitts, 1827." "The North American Medical and Surgical Journal."

"Medical Statistics, being a Series of Tables showing the Mortality in

* Twenty-fifth Anniversary of the Organization of the Union League of Philadelphia, December 27, 1887. Press of J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1888.

Philadelphia and its Causes." "The American Journal of the Medical Sciences," November, 1827.

"Medical Statistics, consisting of Estimates relating to the Population of Philadelphia, with its Changes as Influenced by the Deaths and Births during Ten Years, viz., from 1821 to 1830 inclusive." "The American Journal of the Medical Sciences," November, 1831.

"Vital Statistics of Philadelphia for the Decennial Period from 1830 to 1840." "The American Journal of the Medical Sciences," July, 1848.

"Lecture on the Advantages Derived from Cultivating the Arts and Sciences." By G. Emerson, M.D. Delivered before the Philadelphia Mercantile Library Association, in the hall of the Musical Fund Society, December 8, 1839. Printed by A. Waldie, Philadelphia, 1840.

"An Address delivered at Laurel Hill Cemetery on the Completion of a Monument Erected to the Memory of Thomas Godfrey, June 1, 1843." By G. Emerson, M.D.

"The Farmer's Encyclopedia and Dictionary of Rural Affairs; embracing all the most recent discoveries in agricultural chemistry, adapted to the comprehension of unscientific readers, illustrated by numerous engravings of animals, implements and other subjects interesting to the agriculturist." By Cuthbert W. Johnson, Esq., F.R.S., Barrister-at Law; Editor of the "Farmer's Almanac;" corresponding member of the Agricultural Society of Edinburgh; the Horticultural Society of Maryland, etc. Adapted to the United States, by Gouverneur Emerson. 8vo, pp. 1173. Carey & Hart, Philadelphia, 1844.

"Address delivered before the Society for Promoting Agriculture of the County of Philadelphia, at their Annual Exhibition, at the Rising Sun Tavern, October 6, 1848." By Gouverneur Emerson, M.D. Henry C. Clark, Printer, Philadelphia, 1849.

"An Address delivered before the Delaware Horticultural Society at Wilmington, on the 24th of September, 1851." By Gouverneur Emerson, M.D.

"Report on the Agency of the Refrigeration Produced by Upward Radiation of Heat as an Exciting Cause of Disease." "Transactions of the American Medical Association," Vol. vi, 1853, pp. 139-152.

"An Address delivered before the Agricultural Society of Chester County, Pa., September 17, 1853." By Gouverneur Emerson, M.D.

"An Address delivered before the Agricultural Society of New Castle County, Del., at the Annual Exhibition held in Wilmington, September 12, 1855." By G. Emerson, M.D.

"An Address delivered before the Agricultural Society of Kent County, Del., October 15, 1857." By G. Emerson, M.D., of Philadelphia.

"Results of Extensive Experiments in the Use of Superphosphate of Lime, etc., communicated to the Agricultural Society of Kent County, Del." By Dr. G. Emerson, February 2, 1859.

"Jourdan's Ammoniated Superphosphate of Lime; its Nature and Uses;

with directions to farmers for applying it to their crops, and observations which cannot fail to impart much useful practical information."

[There is conclusive evidence that this pamphlet was written by Dr. Emerson.]

"Cotton in the Middle States; with Directions for its Easy Culture." By G. Emerson, M.D. Author of the "Farmer's and Planter's Encyclopedia," Philadelphia, 1862.

"Land Drainage." An address delivered before the Farmer's Club of Kent County, Del., at Dover, January, 1872. By G. Emerson, M.D., of Philadelphia. [Illustrated by a topographical sketch map of Kent county, Del.]

"The Organization of Labor, in accordance with Custom and the Law of the Decalogue; with a summary of comparative observations upon good and evil in the regime of labor, the causes of evil existing in the present time, and the means required to effect reform; with objections and answers, difficulties and solutions." By F. Le Play, Senator (of France), Inspector-General of Mines, Commissioner-General to the Universal Exposition (in Paris), of 1855, 1862 and 1867. Author of *Des Ouvriers Européens* and *La Reforme Sociale*.

"Les politiques veulent en un état bien rêglé, plus des maitres des arts mechaniques, que de maitres des arts liberéaux." Richelieu (*Testament Polito*).

Translated by Gouverneur Emerson, M.D., member of the American Philosophical Society. From the French of the second revised and corrected edition published at Tours, in 1870. Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger, Philadelphia, 1872. 12mo, pp. 417.

Stated Meeting, Januarg 2, 1891.

Present, 17 members.

Mr. Dudley in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were announced.

A letter was received from Mr. L. Vossion, dated Philadelphia, December 20, 1890, accepting membership.

A circular was received in regard to the celebration of the seventieth birthday of Prof. Rudolph Virchow, from the Committee on the same in Berlin.

The report of the judges and clerks of the annual election was submitted, and the following members were declared the Officers and Council of the Society for the year 1891:

President.

Frederick Fraley.

Vice-Presidents.

E. Otis Kendall, Dr. Ruschenberger, J. P. Lesley.

Secretaries.

George F. Barker, Daniel G. Brinton, Henry Phillips, Jr., George H. Horn.

Curators.

Patterson Du Bois, J. Cheston Morris, Richard Meade Bache.

Treasurer.

J. Sergeant Price.

Councilors (for three years).

Aubrey H. Smith, George R. Morehouse, Samuel Wagner, William C. Cattell.

Councilor for two years, in place of Dr. Daniel R. Goodwin, deceased.

Dr. Charles S. Wurts.

Nominations for Librarian being in order, Mr. William P. Tatham nominated Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr.; Prof. E. D. Cope nominated Mr. Benjamin Smith Lyman.

The Secretaries presented a paper by Dr. J. Lindhal on a skull of a Megalonyx leidii, n. sp., for the Transactions. On motion, the communication was referred to a Committee of three members, to be appointed by the President, to examine and report upon.

(The President subsequently appointed Profs. Leidy, Lesley, and Heilprin as such Committee.)

Dr. J. Cheston Morris called the attention of the Society again to the subject of Vital Molecular Vibrations:

Force is not motion, as Dr. McLaughlin puts it, but that which causes motion or change in matter. While its true nature is unknown, the phenomena of the various physical forces correspond so completely with undulations or vibrations that they are recognized as such, the results of impulses brought to bear upon matter capable of atomic vibration; and the tendency of modern thought is more and more towards considering light, heat, electricity, chemical affinity and mechanic force as all of them essentially only modifications of one and the same force. But when we come to consider the phenomena of life, while we find that living bodies are all composed of material atoms similar to those of the inorganic world, another force or impulse seems to be at work suspending or reversing the ordinary action of the physical forces. It is characterized by acting, as they do, only under special conditions, viz., the presence of plasma or organizable matter, heat, oxygen, light, and a germ, itself the product of previous life. Withdraw any of these—the ordinary phenomena of inorganic matter present themselves. But whenever they are present, an organized form results which tends to follow the type of its parent forms. Fresh particles of matter are taken up and others are discharged; in other words, we have the phenomena of growth, development, secretion, excretion and of reproduction; all the physical laws and properties of matter are retained and followed, but they are subordinated to or coördinated with those of another force, which we call vital, organic or germ force, with its own laws as distinctly defined as those of chemistry or heat. It is just as unreasonable to deny the existence of the former as of the latter.

Hitherto the vibratory theory has only been applied to explaining physical phenomena. It remained for Dr. McLaughlin to extend its application to vital phenomena, by showing how completely it explains the phenomena of immunity from, and prevention of, infectious and contagious diseases by the law of *interference*. I wish to call your attention to a similar explanation of the phenomena of germ force and heredity by the law of *transference*. If two weights are suspended at proper distances from a cord fastened transversely between two pillars, and a third weight is similarly suspended between them, and motions imparted perpendicularly to each other to the two outer weights, these motions will be so transferred to the third weight as to cause it to describe a series of curves resulting from the impulses transmitted; or if a powder be dusted over a square tin plate, and the edge of the latter be touched at certain nodal points, the powder will arrange itself in certain lines and geometric figures. Is not this precisely what happens when the germ-cell and sperm-cell, the molecules of each vibrating in accordance with the impulses impressed upon it, unite in the production of the new germ, which in turn vibrates in accordance with these impulses, and proceeds accordingly to arrange and develop fresh molecules, forms and figures similar to its

antecedents? In this way we have the explanation of the germ resulting only as the harmonic product of suitable vibrations—of the hereditary transmission of qualities—and of the variations from type which occasionally occur. We have also the explanation of the cessation when life vibrations shall have been exhausted or transmuted into other forms of life itself, or so-called death. We have also the explanation of the periodicity of many, if not all, of the functions of living bodies, both in health and disease. Likewise, we have an explanation of the effects of drugs on certain organs and functions. To say "that opium produces sleep on account of its somniferous tendency" is to veil our ignorance very thinly. But, if we suppose that nerve tissue has a certain vibration, so differing in period from that of the morphia molecule which we introduce into the blood, that until the latter is eliminated or changed the nerve vibrations are modified or suspended, we can form a much more rational conception of the effect of opium. So also with the selection of appropriate food from a common plasma by different organisms, and also from the blood by the various organs and structures of the body. In fact, a new field is opened to biologists, naturalists, physiologists and physicians whose limits are at present far beyond our ken.

New nomination No. 1217 was read.

The Committees appointed at last meeting, of which Dr. Cope and Mr. Biddle were respectively Chairmen, were continued.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, January 16, 1891.

Present, 73 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were reported.

Mr. L. Vossion and Prof. G. S. Fullerton took their seats.

A circular was received from the Museo de la Plata, Argentine Republic, requesting exchanges, also sending one of its publications.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Geological Survey of India, Calcutta (131, 132, 133); Taschkent

Observatory, Taschkent, Russia (131, 132, 133); K. K. Geologische Reichsanstalt, Drs. Friederich Müller, Dionys Stur, Vienna (131, 132, 133); Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt a. O. (131, 132, 133); Mr. Joseph Prestwich, Shoreham, Kent, England (127, 128, 129, 130); Chicago Academy of Science, Chicago (130, 131, 132, 133).

Accessions to the Library were received from the Académie R. de Belgique, Bruxelles; Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt a. O.; Verein für Erdkunde, Halle a. S.; Physikalische-Medicinische Societät, München; Prof. Ferdinando Bosari, Naples; R. Accademia dei Lincei, Rome; Osservatorio Astronomico, Turin; Société de Géographie, Lille; Commission des Annales des Mines, Rédaction "Cosmos," Paris; R. Astronomical Society, Editors of the "Geological Magazine," "Nature," London; Prof. George M. Dawson, Ottawa, Canada; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; American Statistical Association, Boston; Editors of "American Journal of Science," Yale College, New Haven; University of State of New York, Albany; New York Historical Society, New York; Franklin Institute, Engineers' Club, College of Pharmacy, Editors of the "Homœopathic Physician," "Medical and Surgical Reporter," "Medical News," American Bar Association, Mercantile Library, Messrs. J. E. Ives, Henry Phillips, Jr., Philadelphia; U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis; Johns Hopkins University, Editors of "American Journal of Philology," "American Chemical Journal," Baltimore; Department of State, U. S. Naval Observatory, Smithsonian Institution, Anthropological Society, Hydrographic Office of U. S. Navy, Prof. Albert S. Gatschet, Washington, D. C.; Public Library of Cincinnati; Musée de la Plata.

The stated business of the meeting was then taken up, and, on motion, the Society resolved to proceed to the election of Librarian for the ensuing year. It was resolved to conduct the same by ballot, and that the polls should remain open thirty minutes, during which the Society took a recess to enable the members present to deposit their votes.

J. Sergeant Price, Esq., and Dr. Persifor Frazer were appointed by the Chair as tellers to conduct the said election; who, after the polls had been closed, reported to the President that Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., had received 39 votes, and Mr. Benjamin Smith Lyman, 31 votes; whereupon the President declared Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr., to have been duly elected Librarian of the Society for the ensuing year.

[Secretary Phillips being present and not voting.]

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint at his leisure the Standing Committees of the Society, which he subsequently selected, as follows:

Finance.

William B. Rogers, Philip C. Garrett, Charles S. Wurts.

Hall.

J. Sergeant Price, William A. Ingham, Charles A. Oliver.

Publication.

Daniel G. Brinton, George H. Horn, Samuel Wagner,
Patterson DuBois, Horace Jayne.

Library.

Edwin J. Houston, William V. McKean, William John Potts,
Jesse Y. Burk, William H. Greene.

The Committee on the Paper of Dr. J. Lindahl reported the same to be worthy of publication, which was so ordered, and the Committee was discharged.

Prof. Cope's Committee and Mr. Arthur Biddle's Committee reported progress and were continued.

Pending nomination, No. 1217, and new nominations, Nos. 1218 and 1219, were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, February 6, 1891.

Present, 17 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were announced.

The President announced the death of Hon. George Bancroft (January 17, 1891), æt. 91, and, on motion, was authorized to appoint a suitable person to prepare the usual obituary notice. Prof. J. Bach McMaster was subsequently appointed.

Pending nominations 1217, 1218 and 1219 were read.

Mr. Arthur Biddle presented a report from the Committee on the Etting Bequest, recommending that the Society decline to take any part in the litigation arising out of the caveat filed to the last two codicils of the will of F. M. Etting, deceased, now pending, and that the Society decline to act as Trustee under said will.

On motion of Mr. Horner, the report was accepted.

On motion of Dr. Morris, the Society declined to litigate under the caveat to the last two codicils now pending.

On motion of Mr. Horner, the Society declined to accept the trust.

On motion of Mr. Biddle, the Secretaries were requested to notify the executors of the action of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, February 20, 1891.

Present, 12 members.

Mr. WILLIAM A. INGHAM in the Chair.

The death of Prof. Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor, Mich., February 18, 1891, æt. 72, was reported.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were reported.

The Free Public Library, Jersey City, was placed on exchange list to receive Proceedings.

The Library Committee reported suggestions to facilitate the replacing of the books on the shelves in the Society's Library; that the Library room should be finished; that bookcases to contain works of reference should be placed in the meeting room, and that the Society should appropriate $500 for the purchase of new books.

After this latter recommendation had been presented, a letter was read from the Treasurer requesting that no appropriation should be made for that purpose for the present, giving his reasons for the same.

The Committee's recommendation was postponed for the present.

The minutes of the Board of Officers and Council were submitted.

Pending nominations Nos. 1217, 1218 and 1219 were read, spoken to, and balloted for, and No. 2187, Commander F. M. Green, U. S. School Ship *Saratoga*, was declared elected a member of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, March 6, 1891.

Present, 19 members.

President, Mr. Fraley, in the Chair.

Correspondence was presented and donations to the Library reported:

A letter from Theodore Turrettini (Geneva, February 8, 1891) accepting membership.

A circular in relation to the formation of State library associations.

A circular in relation to the Fifth International Geographical Congress to be held in Washington, August 26, 1891.

A circular from the Society of Borda, Dax, announcing the death of M. Henry du Boucher, a former President.

A circular from l'Académie des Sciences, etc., de Belgique, announcing the death of Lieut.-General J. B. I. Liagre, its Permanent Secretary.

A letter from R. Brabbée (Vienna VIII, Kochgasse 27) enclosing a specimen of his new method of reckoning.

A letter from Dr. Antonio Del Bon (Padua) in relation to Prof. P. E. Chase's paper on "English and Sanskrit Root-analogues."

Letters from August Tischner (Leipzig) on "The Celestial Phenomena," "The Movements of the Sun in Space," "The Movements of the Planets," "The Solar System" and "The Elements of the Elliptic Orbits."

A paper by Dr. D. G. Brinton entitled "Some Vocabularies from the Musquito Coast" was presented.

Dr. J. Cheston Morris presented a pamphlet entitled "Tepeu" (by Dr. Thomas E. Pickett), on the hypothetical migrations of the *Morbus Americanus*, upon which he made some remarks, referring to the account given by Josephus of the evils caused the Jewish youth by the entrance of the Midianitish women into the Hebrew camp.

Dr. J. Cheston Morris made some remarks on "Hebrew Phonetics," and was followed by Prof. J. P. Lesley upon the same subject.

Prof. Lesley made some remarks on a report by Mr. John Fulton (Johnstown, Pa.) on the diminution of the supply of natural gas and its ratio.

Dr. Morris called attention to the case of the miners recently entombed at Jeanesville, Pa., for nineteen days almost without food. "They were found in a breast near where they had been working. The water from an abandoned mine at a much higher level, estimated at 145 feet, had entered the mine and

imprisoned them. This is the longest period in the history of mining in Pennsylvania of preservation of life under such circumstances. And in this connection it may be also well consider that in no case on record has an attempt at cannibalism been made by the sufferers. This fact should be placed to the credit of a class of men too often unjustly despised and maligned. When these men were borne alive from the mine, the whole crowd of bystanders accompanied them to the temporary hospital singing the doxology.

"The level of the water in abandoned mine dropped slowly, day by day, in consequence of pumping incessantly, at rates varying from two to fourteen feet."

New nominations Nos. 1220, 1221 and 1222 were read.

The Committee on Improved Accommodations reported progress.

Prof. Cope, from the Committee appointed December 19, 1890, to consider the improvement of the Proceedings of the Society, presented a report.

Considerable discussion took place upon the same, and the following resolution was adopted, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That the Report and Resolutions accompanying be recommitted to the same Committee, and the Committee be continued in order to obtain fuller data as to the matters therein referred to; and the Committee be instructed to present its Report at the first meeting of the Society in May, 1891 (May 1).

On motion, the Society

Resolved, That the Treasurer, J. Sergeant Price, Esq., be authorized and directed to give notice to the City of Philadelphia to quit the rooms in the building of the Society now occupied by it for the use of the courts and its officers, at the end of the present tenancy, viz., on the 1st of July, 1891.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, March 20, 1891.

Present, 3 members.

Dr. J. CHESTON MORRIS in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters of envoy were received from the Ministère des Travaux Publics, Paris; Meteorological Office, London.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from Royal Society of Victoria, Melbourne, Australia (131, 132, 133); Mr. Samuel Davenport, Adelaide, Australia (130); Royal Society of N. S. Wales, Sydney, Australia (131, 132, 133); Tokyo Anthropological Society (131, 132, 133); Société R. des Sciences, Upsal, Sweden (130, 131, 132, 133, and Trans. xvi, 3); Friesch Genootschap, Leuwarden (133); R. Accademia degli Agiati, Rovereto, Austria (129, 130, 132, 133); Prof. Hermann Rollett, Vienna (129, 130, 132, 133); Prof. Hauer, Vienna, Austria (132, 133); Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift, Berlin (131, 132, 133); K. Bibliothek, Berlin (131, 132, 133); Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Emden (131, 132, 133); Prof. E. Hœckel, Jena (131, 132, 133); Dr. Julius Platzmann, Leipzig (131); Verein für Vaterländische Naturkunde, Stuttgart (131, 132, 133); Am. Geog. Society, New York (131); Mr. L. Vossion, Philadelphia (131, 132, 133, 134); Denison Scientific Association, Granville, O. (131, 132, 133); Michigan State Library, Lansing (131, 132, 133, 134); Museo National de Buenos Aires (125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 131, 132, 133).

Letters of acknowledgment (134) were received from Mr. J. M. Le Moine, Quebec; Toronto University Library, Canadian Institute, Sir Daniel Wilson, Toronto; Geological Survey, Ottawa; Maine Historical Society, Society of Natural History, Portland, Me.; New Hampshire Historical Society, Concord; Dr. C. N. Hitchcock, Hanover, N. H.; Amherst College, Boston Society of Natural History, Mass. Historical Society, Athenæum, Messrs. T. M. Drown, Robert C. Winthrop, S. P.

Sharples, Boston; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Profs. A. Agassiz, Robert N. Toppan, Cambridge; The Essex Institute, Salem; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester; Free Public Library, New Bedford; Mr. James B. Francis, Lowell; Prof. Pliny Earle, Northampton, Mass.; New Haven Colony Historical Society; Connecticut Historical Society, Hartford; Mr. George F. Dunning, Farmington, Conn.; New York State Library, Albany; Hamilton College, Clinton; Profs. T. F. Crane, J. M. Hart, B. G. Wilder, Ithaca; Vassar Brothers' Institute, Poughkeepsie; Rochester Academy of Science; Library of U. S. Military Academy, West Point; The Oneida Historical Society, Utica, N. Y.; New York Hospital, University of the City of New York, Dr. John J. Stevenson, Columbia College, Gen. Henry L. Abbot, Meteorological Observatory, American Museum of Natural History, New York; New Jersey Historical Society, Newark; Free Public Library, Jersey City; Prof. C. A. Young, Princeton; Mr. Isaac C. Martindale, Camden, N. J.; Dr. Robert H. Alison, Ardmore; Mr. Burnet Landreth, Bristol; Dr. Martin H. Boyè, Coopersburg; Mr. Eckley B. Coxe, Drifton; Drs. Traill Green, J. W. Moore, Thomas C. Porter, Easton; Mr. Andrew S. McCreath, Harrisburg; Haverford College; Drs. Allen C. Thomas, Isaac Sharpless, Lyman B. Hall, Haverford College; Mr. J. N. Fulton, Johnstown; Linnean Society, Lancaster; Mr. P. F. Rothermel, Linfield; Messrs. Heber S. Thompson, P. W. Sheafer, Pottsville; Mr. M. Fisher Longstreth, Sharon Hill; Lackawanna Institute of History and Science, Scranton; Philosophical Society, Messrs. Washington Townsend, Philip P. Sharples, West Chester, Pa.; Library of the Pennsylvania Hospital, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, Philadelphia Library, Wagner Free Institute of Science, Zoölogical Garden, Franklin Institute, Academy Natural Science, Messrs. John Ashhurst, Jr., Andrew A. Blair, Charles Bullock, Edwin J. Houston, S. Castner, Jr., Thomas M. Cleemann, C. S. Dolley, Samuel Dixon, Patterson Du Bois, Frederick Fraley, Persifor Frazer, George Friebis, George S. Fullerton, Horace Howard Furness, H. D. Gregory, F. A. Genth,

Fred. A. Genth, Jr., Edward Hopper, W. A. Ingham, William W. Jefferis, W. W. Keen, J. P. Lesley, John Marshall, Geo. R. Morehouse, James T. Mitchell, E. Y. McCauley, Charles A. Oliver, J. Sergeant Price, Robert Patterson, William Pepper, Henry Phillips, Jr., Franklin Platt, C. N. Peirce, W. S. W. Ruschenberger, Henry Reed, Theo. D. Rand, James W. Robins, L. A. Scott, Benjamin Sharp, Albert H. Smyth, Aubrey H. Smith, H. Clay Trumbull, Samuel Wagner, William H. Wahl, Henry Willis, Mrs. Helen Abbott Michael, Philadelphia; Rev. F. A. Mühlenberg, Reading, Pa.; U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis; Peabody Institute, Maryland Institute, Maryland Historical Society, Baltimore, Md.; Bureau of Ethnology, U. S. Geological Survey, Smithsonian Institution, U. S. Signal Office, U. S. Naval Observatory, Surgeon-General's Office, Anthropological Society, Patent Office, Rt. Rev. John J. Keane, Messrs. Charles A. Schott, H. Haupt, Albert S. Gatschet, Garrick Mallery, W. Strong, Washington, D.C.; Prof. J. C. White, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.; University of Virginia, University of Virginia P. O.; Mr. Jed. Hotchkiss, Staunton, Va.; Elliott Society of Science and Art, Charleston, S. C.; Georgia Historical Society, Mr. William Harden, Savannah, Ga.; University of Alabama; Denison Scientific Association, Granville; Cincinnati Society Natural History, Cincinnati Observatory; Rev. Henry S. Osborn, Oxford; Dr. E. W. Claypole, Akron, O.; Dr. Robert Peter, Lexington, Ky.; Athenæum, Columbia, Tenn.; University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.; University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill.; The Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. John L. Campbell, Crawfordsville, Ind.; State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison; Prof. J. C. Branner, Little Rock, Ark.; Col. William Ludlow, Gen. W. F. Raynolds, Detroit; Prof. Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; Kansas State Historical Society, The Kansas Academy of Science, Topeka; Observatorio Astronómico National Mexicano, Tacubaya, Mexico.

Accessions to the Library were reported.

Pending nominations 1220, 1221, 1222, and new nominations 1223, 1224, 1225 and 1226 were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, April 3, 1891.

Present, 13 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted.

Accessions to the Library were reported.

Prof. Lesley read an obituary notice of the late Peter W. Sheafer (b. March 31, 1819; died at Pottsville, March 26, 1891).

The death of Dr. Thomas B. Reed was announced (Philadelphia, April 1, 1891, æt. 59).

Prof. Lesley read a paper "On An Important Boring Through 2000 Feet of Trias in Eastern Pennsylvania," which was followed by some remarks on the subject by Mr. B. S. Lyman.

Pending nominations, Nos. 1220, 1221, 1222, 1223, 1224, 1225 and 1226 were read.

The report of the Trustees of the Building Fund was presented.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, April 17, 1891.

Present, 13 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

A letter was received from the American Consul General, Melbourne, Australia, asking the Society to participate in a

Stated Meeting, February 6, 1891.

Present, 17 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were announced.

The President announced the death of Hon. George Bancroft (January 17, 1891), æt. 91, and, on motion, was authorized to appoint a suitable person to prepare the usual obituary notice. Prof. J. Bach McMaster was subsequently appointed.

Pending nominations 1217, 1218 and 1219 were read.

Mr. Arthur Biddle presented a report from the Committee on the Etting Bequest, recommending that the Society decline to take any part in the litigation arising out of the caveat filed to the last two codicils of the will of F. M. Etting, deceased, now pending, and that the Society decline to act as Trustee under said will.

On motion of Mr. Horner, the report was accepted.

On motion of Dr. Morris, the Society declined to litigate under the caveat to the last two codicils now pending.

On motion of Mr. Horner, the Society declined to accept the trust.

On motion of Mr. Biddle, the Secretaries were requested to notify the executors of the action of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, February 20, 1891.

Present, 12 members.

Mr. WILLIAM A. INGHAM in the Chair.

The death of Prof. Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor, Mich., February 18, 1891, æt. 72, was reported.

Correspondence was submitted and accessions to the Library were reported.

The Free Public Library, Jersey City, was placed on exchange list to receive Proceedings.

The Library Committee reported suggestions to facilitate the replacing of the books on the shelves in the Society's Library; that the Library room should be finished; that bookcases to contain works of reference should be placed in the meeting room, and that the Society should appropriate $500 for the purchase of new books.

After this latter recommendation had been presented, a letter was read from the Treasurer requesting that no appropriation should be made for that purpose for the present, giving his reasons for the same.

The Committee's recommendation was postponed for the present.

The minutes of the Board of Officers and Council were submitted.

Pending nominations Nos. 1217, 1218 and 1219 were read, spoken to, and balloted for, and No. 2187, Commander F. M. Green, U. S. School Ship *Saratoga*, was declared elected a member of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, March 6, 1891.

Present, 19 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was presented and donations to the Library reported:

A letter from Theodore Turrettini (Geneva, February 8, 1891) accepting membership.

Dr. John LeConte (Berkeley, Cal.), April 29, 1891, æt. 73 (b. Dec. 4, 1818).

Dr. Joseph Leidy (Philadelphia), April 30, 1891 (b. Sept. 9, 1823).

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint suitable persons to prepare the usual obituary notices of Dr. Leidy and Dr. LeConte.

Prof. Lesley read a paper on "Artesian Wells in Philadelphia, Norristown, Montgomery and Delaware Counties," with notes by Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter.

Prof. Lesley presented a paper by Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter on "The Feldspar Bed in the Laurentian Gneiss near Lafayette Station."

Mr. Holman made an oral communication in relation to a new microscope, lately invented by him, by which objects distant from its front lens over two and a half feet could be readily examined in their habitat. For example, at that distance a salamander of a few inches in size would appear some thirty inches in length, and its whole circulation of blood would be plainly visible. The instrument uses a photographic lens as an object glass, and is really a short-focus telescope.

Pending nominations Nos. 1220 to 1229 (inclusive) were read.

Mr. J. Sergeant Price, the Treasurer, having reported to the Society that he had received through its attorney, Mr. John H. Harjes, of Paris, the sum of three thousand eight hundred and fifty-five dollars and forty-two cents, the full amount of the legacy of twenty thousand francs (at the exchange of 5.18$\frac{3}{4}$ francs per docia) given to it by the will of the late Mr. Auguste Carlier, of Paris, a member of our Society, submitted the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Society be returned to Mr. Louis Vossion, the French Consul at Philadelphia, for his aid in preparing the necessary papers and certificates therein for presenting our claim for said legacy to Mr. P. Massion, of Paris, the Executor of Mr. Auguste Carlier; he as a member of our Society declining to make any charge therefor for fees and expenses.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Society be returned to Mr. John H. Harjes, of the firm of Messrs. Drexel & Co., for his valuable services as our representative in Paris, in obtaining from Mr. P. Massion, the Executor of Mr. Auguste Carlier, the legacy of twenty thousand francs given to us by his will and remitting the same to us without any charge for the time and care given to our interests, which acts of kindness are highly appreciated by the Society.

The Committee on Extended Accommodations reported progress.

The deferred business being in order, the report of the Committee submitted March 6, 1891, was taken up.

Prof. Cope moved that the consideration of the same be postponed until the next regular meeting of the Society, and that notice thereof should be placed upon the meeting postal-cards.

Mr. Price moved, as a substitute and amendment, that the consideration of the report should be postponed until the first regular meeting in November, 1891.

The amendment, being put to a vote, was declared carried.

The resolution as amended was then unanimously adopted.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, May 15, 1891.

Present, 19 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows: A circular was received from the Observatorio de San Fernando announcing the death of the Director of the Observatory, Sr. D. Cecilio Pujazon.

Letters of envoy were received from the K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Leipzig; Royal Statistical Society, London.

Fred. A. Genth, Jr., Edward Hopper, W. A. Ingham, William W. Jefferis, W. W. Keen, J. P. Lesley, John Marshall, Geo. R. Morehouse, James T. Mitchell, E. Y. McCauley, Charles A. Oliver, J. Sergeant Price, Robert Patterson, William Pepper, Henry Phillips, Jr., Franklin Platt, C. N. Peirce, W. S. W. Ruschenberger, Henry Reed, Theo. D. Rand, James W. Robins, L. A. Scott, Benjamin Sharp, Albert H. Smyth, Aubrey H. Smith, H. Clay Trumbull, Samuel Wagner, William H. Wahl, Henry Willis, Mrs. Helen Abbott Michael, Philadelphia; Rev. F. A. Mühlenberg, Reading, Pa.; U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis; Peabody Institute, Maryland Institute, Maryland Historical Society, Baltimore, Md.; Bureau of Ethnology, U. S. Geological Survey, Smithsonian Institution, U. S. Signal Office, U. S. Naval Observatory, Surgeon-General's Office, Anthropological Society, Patent Office, Rt. Rev. John J. Keane, Messrs. Charles A. Schott, H. Haupt, Albert S. Gatschet, Garrick Mallery, W. Strong, Washington, D.C.; Prof. J. C. White, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.; University of Virginia, University of Virginia P. O.; Mr. Jed. Hotchkiss, Staunton, Va.; Elliott Society of Science and Art, Charleston, S. C.; Georgia Historical Society, Mr. William Harden, Savannah, Ga.; University of Alabama; Denison Scientific Association, Granville; Cincinnati Society Natural History, Cincinnati Observatory; Rev. Henry S. Osborn, Oxford; Dr. E. W. Claypole, Akron, O.; Dr. Robert Peter, Lexington, Ky.; Athenæum, Columbia, Tenn.; University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.; University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill.; The Newberry Library, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. John L. Campbell, Crawfordsville, Ind.; State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison; Prof. J. C. Branner, Little Rock, Ark.; Col. William Ludlow, Gen. W. F. Raynolds, Detroit; Prof. Alexander Winchell, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; Kansas State Historical Society, The Kansas Academy of Science, Topeka; Observatorio Astronómico National Mexicano, Tacubaya, Mexico.

Accessions to the Library were reported.

tion of the Report and the matters therein contained, was postponed, on motion, to an adjourned meeting of the Society to be held at its Hall on May 29, 1891, at 8 P.M.

Secretaries Barker and Brinton, the tellers appointed to conduct the balloting for members, reported the following to have been duly elected members:

2188. Dr. René Gregory, Leipzig.

2189. Prof. Henry W. Spangler, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

2190. Prof. A. de Quatrefages, Membre de l'Institut, Paris, France.

2191. Sir Robert S. Ball, Astronomer Royal for Ireland, Dublin.

2192. Prof. Charles E. Munroe, Newport, R. I.

2193. Right Rev. William Stubbs, LL.D., D.D., Bishop of Oxford, England.

2194. Dr. E. T. Hamy, Conservator du Musée du Louvre, Paris, France.

2195. Prof. Jules Oppert, Membre de l'Institut, Paris, France.

2196. Prof. Gaston Maspero, Paris, France.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

An Adjourned Meeting was held May 29, 1891.

Present, 11 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

The President stated the object of the meeting.

Prof. Edwin J. Houston, Chairman, read the following ex-

tract from the minutes of the last meeting of the Committee on Library:

The Library Committee respectfully reports to the Society that it is unable to understand the plans of the Committee on Extended Accommodations as regards the general character of the new bookcases to be furnished, their location, number and size.

The Library Committee cannot intelligently carry on the work delegated to it by the Society, unless its duties and those of the Committee on Extended Accommodations be clearly defined by the Society.

A general discussion took place, and the Chairman of the Committee on Extended Accommodations explained the work and the plans of the Committee.

Prof. Houston stated the points at issue to be three, viz.:

1. Does the Society desire all its books to be placed in the new Library room? or,
2. Does it wish any in the North room? or,
3. Does it wish any in the Meeting room.

On motion of Dr. Morris it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That the stock of publications issued by the Society shall be placed in a portion of the North room.

On motion of Dr. Hayes it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That the Committee on Extended Accommodations be directed to locate and construct cases for books, and cabinets, in accordance with plans to be approved of by the *Library Committee.*

On motion of Prof. Smyth it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That Daniel G. Brinton and Henry Phillips, Jr., and each of them, be appointed delegates to represent this Society at the meeting at Moscow, this year, of the Congres International d'Anthropologie et Archéologie Prehistoriques, provided that the said appointment shall entail no expense whatever upon the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

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VOL. XXIX. JULY TO DECEMBER, 1891. No. 136.

Notes on Calospasta Lec.

By George H. Horn, M.D.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, October 2, 1891.)

Some years ago, in a critical review of the genera of Meloidæ, it seemed evident, from the modifications of the form of the tarsal claws, that some genera remained to be discovered to fill the gaps existing. These forms were indicated at the time and one of them has already been found. Another of the missing links must come in the vicinity of the genus under discussion and is really foreshadowed in the slight claw modifications already observed. That the material may be at hand and ready for use in the event of further discoveries is my excuse for presenting this short paper for the consideration of those interested.

CALOSPASTA LEC.

In the *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 60, I gave a brief table of the species then known to me. Since then another species has been described (*loc. cit.*, 1883, p. 312).

Two more new species have recently been collected, both from California, which, with the one not included in my previous table, will require some modification of it.

1. Spurs of hind tibiæ slender and not very dissimilar 2
   Spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the inner slender, the outer cylindrical and truncate 6
2. Elytra strongly costate .... 1. **mirabilis.**
   Elytra not costate 3
3. Median line of front deeply impressed; head red....... 2. **histrionica.**
   Median line of front not at all impressed; head and thorax dark blue or green 4
4. Median line of thorax impressed; thorax not longer than wide; color green .... 3. **viridis.**
   Median line of thorax not impressed 5

Dr. John LeConte (Berkeley, Cal.), April 29, 1891, æt. 73 (b. Dec. 4, 1818).

Dr. Joseph Leidy (Philadelphia), April 30, 1891 (b. Sept. 9, 1823).

On motion, the President was authorized to appoint suitable persons to prepare the usual obituary notices of Dr. Leidy and Dr. LeConte.

Prof. Lesley read a paper on "Artesian Wells in Philadelphia, Norristown, Montgomery and Delaware Counties," with notes by Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter.

Prof. Lesley presented a paper by Prof. Oscar C. S. Carter on "The Feldspar Bed in the Laurentian Gneiss near Lafayette Station."

Mr. Holman made an oral communication in relation to a new microscope, lately invented by him, by which objects distant from its front lens over two and a half feet could be readily examined in their habitat. For example, at that distance a salamander of a few inches in size would appear some thirty inches in length, and its whole circulation of blood would be plainly visible. The instrument uses a photographic lens as an object glass, and is really a short-focus telescope.

Pending nominations Nos. 1220 to 1229 (inclusive) were read.

Mr. J. Sergeant Price, the Treasurer, having reported to the Society that he had received through its attorney, Mr. John H. Harjes, of Paris, the sum of three thousand eight hundred and fifty-five dollars and forty-two cents, the full amount of the legacy of twenty thousand francs (at the exchange of 5.18¾ francs per docia) given to it by the will of the late Mr. Auguste Carlier, of Paris, a member of our Society, submitted the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

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The Committee on Extended Accommodations reported progress.

The deferred business being in order, the report of the Committee submitted March 6, 1891, was taken up.

Prof. Cope moved that the consideration of the same be postponed until the next regular meeting of the Society, and that notice thereof should be placed upon the meeting postal-cards.

Mr. Price moved, as a substitute and amendment, that the consideration of the report should be postponed until the first regular meeting in November, 1891.

The amendment, being put to a vote, was declared carried.

The resolution as amended was then unanimously adopted.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, May 15, 1891.

Present, 19 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows: A circular was received from the Observatorio de San Fernando announcing the death of the Director of the Observatory, Sr. D. Cecilio Pujazon.

Letters of envoy were received from the K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Leipzig; Royal Statistical Society, London.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Linnæan Society of New South Wales, Sydney (130); Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence (134); Prof. O. N. Rood, New York Academy of Sciences (134); Dr. Morris Longstreth, Messrs. John R. Baker, J. S. Harris, George de B. Keim, George Stuart, College of Pharmacy, Philadelphia (134); State Library of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg (134); Mr. John F. Carll, Pleasantville (134); Prof. J. T. Rothrock, West Chester (134); Wyoming Historical and Geological Society, Wilkesbarrè (134); Signal Office, Washington (131, 132, 133, and Transactions xvi, 1, 2, 3); Leander McCormick Observatory, University of Virginia (134); Denison Scientific Association, Granville, O. (134); Davenport Academy of Sciences, Davenport, Iowa (134); Observatorio Nacional de Tacubaya, Sociedad Cientifica "Antonio Alzate," Mexico (134); Museo Michoacano, Morelia; Bishop Crescencio Carrillo, Merida, Yucatan (134).

Dr. Ruschenberger read an obituary notice of the late Dr. Gouverneur Emerson.

The death of Julius E. Hilgard (Washington, D. C.), May 2, 1891, was announced.

The President reported that he had appointed Dr. Ruschenberger to prepare the obituary notice of the late Dr. Leidy, and Prof. Barker that of the late Dr. LeConte (Berkeley, Cal.).

Mr. R. Meade Bache read a paper entitled "A Fragment of Objectionable University-Extension Teaching."

The minutes of the Board of Officers and Council were submitted.

Pending nominations Nos. 1220, 1221, 1222, 1223, 1224, 1225, 1226, 1227, 1228 and 1229 were read, spoken to and balloted for.

At the call of Committees, Prof. E. J. Houston, Chairman, reported a minute of resolutions adopted at the last meeting of the Committee on Library, but the hour of 10 P.M. having arrived, after which, by the laws of the Society (Chapter ix, § 5), it is not permitted to take up new business, the considera-

tion of the Report and the matters therein contained, was postponed, on motion, to an adjourned meeting of the Society to be held at its Hall on May 29, 1891, at 8 P.M.

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The President stated the object of the meeting.

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(Read before the American Philosophical Society, October 2, 1891.)

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Calospasta Lec.

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   Spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the inner slender, the outer cylindrical and truncate 6
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   Median line of front not at all impressed; head and thorax dark blue or green 4
4. Median line of thorax impressed; thorax not longer than wide; color green .... 3. **viridis.**
   Median line of thorax not impressed 5

5. Thorax narrow, longer than wide ; elytra ornate.
   Head and thorax obviously punctate................ 4. **elegans.**
   Head and thorax quite smooth................... 5. **perpulchra.**
   Thorax short, nearly twice as wide as long ; black, subopaque. 6. **Fulleri.**

6. Body above and beneath entirely black................ 7. **moesta.**
   Thorax red.
   Head and thorax sparsely but distinctly punctate, each punctured with a short, black, neat hair.............. 8. **Morrisoni.**
   Head and thorax absolutely smooth, without hair. 9. **nemognathoides.**

C. mirabilis Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870. p. 93.

In this species the antennæ are filiform, the joints closely articulated.

The anterior tarsi of the male are simple, the last ventral segment with a shallow semicircular emargination.

Occurs in Southwestern Utah, Mojave Desert and San Diego, Cal., Rock Spring and near Yuma, Ariz.

C. histrionica, n. sp.

Piceous black, moderately shining, head red, humeri triangularly orange yellow. Antennæ black, filiform, joints moderately closely articulated : head oval, smooth, with but few punctures ; median line deeply impressed, hind angles rounded, mouth parts piceous ; thorax longer than wide, much narrowed at anterior half ; disk feebly convex, transversely depressed in front, a feeble median impression posteriorly, surface almost entirely smooth ; elytra nearly twice as wide at base as the thorax, a faint slender costa on each side ; surface scabrous, the humeri nearly smooth ; body beneath piceous black, shining. Length .34–.54 inch ; 8.5–14 mm.

Male.—First three joints of the anterior tarsi thickened, gibbous on the upper side, with a deep groove producing a bilobed appearance. Last ventral with a small triangular notch.

Female.—Anterior tarsi simple. Last ventral entire.

The form of the anterior tarsi of the male is a repetition in a less marked manner of that observed in Eupompha, while the form of the head, especially in reference to the median groove of the front, is seen in both Eupompha and Tegrodera.

It seems probable that species will yet occur requiring the union of the three genera, as all of them are characterized by the claws being unequally cleft, the lower portion shorter than the upper and connate with it.

Collected near San Diego, Cal. For specimens I am indebted to the kindness of Dr. C. V. Riley.

C. viridis Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1883, p. 312.

Antennæ rather stoutly filiform, the joints closely articulated, 4–10 not longer than wide.

The thorax is wider than long, the median line impressed.

The male has simple anterior tarsi. The last ventral is broadly triangularly emarginate and impressed along the middle.

This species is notable in having the claws cleft very near the tip, so that the under portion is but little shorter than the upper.

Occurs in Colorado and New Mexico. Collected by Prof. F. H. Snow.

C. elegans, *Lec. Ann. Lyc.*, v, p. 161; *Proc. Acad.*, 1853, p. 341; var. *humeralis* Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 93.

Antennæ filiform, moderately closely articulated, joints all longer than wide. On each side of the front, at the insertion of the antennæ, is a gibbosity causing a deep depression above the clypeus.

When fully colored, the dull blue elytra have a yellow vitta of irregular form starting from the humeri, continuing closer to the side than the suture and with an interruption near the apex. The vitta may be reduced in size until there remains merely a triangular humeral spot.

The males have the anterior tarsi dilated, not very notably except the first joint; there is, however, no depression above. The last ventral segment is feebly triangularly emarginate.

Occurs in various parts of Southern California, from San Diego northward.

C. perpulchra Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 92.

Very like *elegans* in all its structural characters. The bright blue elytra have three yellow bands, basal, median, and apical, interrupted by the suture. This species may vary by the gradual loss of the bands, from the apical to the basal, until the elytra are entirely blue. Those with the humeral spot only resemble the var. *humeralis*, of the preceding species; but apart from the ornamentation, the two species may be distinguished by the present having a brighter blue color, smoother surface, the head and thorax quite smooth, while in *elegans* they are very obviously punctate.

The sexual characters are as in *elegans*.

Occurs in Owen's Valley, Cal.

C. Fulleri Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 59.

Black, subopaque. Antennæ filiform, but rather stout; joints closely articulated and scarcely longer than wide. Head, from in front, triangular in form, the sides parallel behind the eyes, hind angles obtuse, occiput truncate. Thorax nearly twice as wide as long.

The anterior tarsi of the male are simple; the last ventral broadly triangularly emarginate, the fifth broadly and not deeply emarginate.

Occurs in Southern California. Found rather abundantly by Mr. Morrison.

C. moesta Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 59.

Entirely black. Thorax longer than wide, not closely punctate. Antennæ slightly thicker externally, the joints submoniliform and not

closely articulated. Tarsal claws cleft very near the base, the lower portion not half the length of the upper. Spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the outer cylindrical, the apex truncate and slightly expanded, inner spur slender.

The males have the anterior tarsi simple, the last ventral with a shallow triangular emargination.

From Southern California, precise locality not known.

C. Morrisoni, n. sp.

Elongate, black, thorax orange red. Antennæ black, slightly thickened externally, joints moniliform; head transversely quadrate, usually with a central rufous spot, parallel for a short distance behind the eyes, hind angles rounded, surface sparsely punctate; thorax scarcely longer than wide, widest one-third from apex, apical third more rapidly narrowed, posterior two-thirds slightly narrowed, disk feebly convex; a slight median depression posteriorly, surface sparsely but distinctly punctate and with shortened black hairs; elytra scabrous, with very short hairs; body beneath black, shining, sparsely pubescent; posterior tibial spurs dissimilar, the outer cylindrical, truncate, slightly broadened at tip, the inner slender and acute; claws deeply cleft, the lower portion more than half the length of the upper. Length .42–.64 inch; 10.5–16 mm.

Male.—The anterior tarsi are simple. Last ventral broadly triangularly emarginate and slightly longitudinally impressed.

In color this species resembles the following, but the head and thorax are very distinctly punctate and more or less pubescent. It is, moreover, much larger, and the surface scarcely shining.

Occurs in Southern California, and was found rather abundantly by Mr. Morrison. At the time when I had but a unique of the next species I supposed these to be merely fully-developed specimens of it.

C. nemognathoides Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 92.

Black, moderately shining, thorax red. Antennæ comparatively slender, the joints longer than wide, not moniliform; head quite smooth, with few very indistinct fine punctures; thorax as wide as long, sides arcuately rounded in apical half, disk convex, without impression, surface smooth and shining; elytra scabrous, sometimes feebly so, surface moderately shining; body beneath black, shining; spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the inner slender, acute, the outer cylindrical, truncate, and slightly wider at tip; claws not deeply cleft, the lower portion two-thirds the length of the upper. Length .22–.32 inch; 5.5–8 mm.

In the male the anterior tarsi are slender. The last ventral segment is deeply incised.

This species might be supposed to be merely a feebly developed form of the preceding. The differences have there been given, to which might here be added the form of the antennæ. It also resembles several of our species of Nemognatha.

Occurs in Owen's Valley, Cal., and in Arizona near Fort Yuma.

The Electrolysis of Metallic Formates.

By Hill Sloane Warwick.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 6, 1891.*)

The facility with which many metallic formates could be reduced to the metallic state by heat, or in the case of silver and mercury, even by the action of light, having led to the hope that they might be employed with particular advantage in electrolysis, the following series of experiments were made upon solutions of copper, zinc and cadmium formates, in order to ascertain the effect of dilution, temperature and pole separation, as well as the conditions necessary in order to effect their quantitative estimation and separation. The current was generated by a battery of ten cells, of the "crowfoot" type, each cell being 3.1 dm. in height, by 1.9 dm. in diameter, and having a capacity of 2 liters ; the dimensions of the zincs were 1.5 cm. by 1.5 cm., and of the radiating copper plates constituting the positive pole 1.5 cm. by 1.5 cm. By means of this battery a comparatively uniform current of 2.8 c.c. electrolytic gas per minute was generated after the cells had been in use for some time.

The strength of the current was measured by means of an ordinary voltameter, and was ascertained before and after the completion of the experiment. For the deposition of small quantities of metal, thick platinum-foil electrodes were used, 3.8 cm. wide, and immersed to the depth of 3.8 cm. in the solution. For quantities above .05 gram, they were unsatisfactory, the metal showing a great tendency to separate in a spongy condition at the edge. In the earlier determinations a platinum dish was used, weighing about 67 grams, and having a capacity of 150 c.c. ; in the later ones a dish weighing 117 grams, and with a capacity of 275 c.c., was employed. The results obtained with the larger dish were necessarily somewhat less exact than with the one of smaller size. The positive pole consisted of a thick platinum wire, the lower portion of which was wound into a horizontal spiral. In some of the separations it was found expedient to substitute for the spiral a small platinum crucible 2.5 cm. in height and 2.8 cm. in diameter, closed by a cork, through which passed a copper wire in contact with the bottom of the crucible. In order to regulate the distance between the poles, a filter stand was used, having inserted on its movable arm an ordinary binding screw, to which the positive pole was attached.

The following formates were prepared :

Copper Formate.

This salt was made by precipitating cupric oxide from a hot solution of copper sulphate, by means of caustic potash ; the precipitate was washed by decantation until free from traces of potash ; it was then dissolved in formic acid having the sp. gr. 1.015, obtained in the usual way from oxalic

acid and glycerine, through which a current of steam was allowed to pass in order to prevent too great a rise of temperature, with the consequent production of decomposition products; the salt was allowed to crystallize out by spontaneous evaporation in a current of warm air, and recrystallized. An abundant crop of large, blue, monoclinic crystals was obtained, having the composition $Cu\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + 4\,H_2O$, efflorescing in dry air, soluble in eight parts of water and changed by boiling to the sparingly soluble basic salt $Cu\,(C\,HO_2)^2.\ 2\,Cu\,(HO)^2$.

Zinc Formate.

A solution of ordinary crystallized zinc sulphate was treated with an excess of sodium carbonate, heated almost to boiling, freed by decantation from soluble impurity and dissolved in hot formic acid. The solution was evaporated down and allowed to stand, after filtering off a slight precipitate that formed on boiling, and which gave the iron reaction with potassium sulphocyanate.

Monoclinic prisms having the formula $Zn\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + 2\,H_2O$ separated out, isomorphous with the cadmium salt, permanent in the air and soluble in twenty-four parts of water at ordinary temperature.

Cadmium Formate.

This salt was prepared by dissolving cadmium obtained by distillation in vacuuo, in nitric acid, neutralizing with a hot solution of potassium carbonate, washing by decantation until free from soluble carbonate and dissolving in formic acid. Large monoclinic crystals separated out, having the composition $Cd\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + 2\,H_2O$, permanent in the air, readily soluble in water.

(Note.—The formulas of copper and cadmium formates are given as follows: $Cu\,(C\,HO_2)^2$ and $Cd\,(C\,HO_2)^2$ in the last edition of Watts' *Dictionary of Chemistry*, differing from all other authorities. Experiments made to settle the question resulted in the formulas assigned, which is in accordance with the ones usually given.)

Lead Formate.

Solutions of lead acetate and sodium formate were mixed and allowed to stand. Large white anhydrous rhombic crystals gradually separated out in radiating needles, sparingly soluble in cold water, more readily in hot, but with partial decomposition into free acid, and a basic salt of variable composition.

Cobaltous Formate.

A hot solution of cobaltous sulphate was neutralized with caustic soda solution, washed by decantation until free from all but traces of the precipitant, dissolved in formic acid, filtered, and allowed to evaporate in a current of warm air. The salt separated in crusts, consisting of indistinct crystals, having the composition $Co\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + 2\,H_2O$, dissolving with difficulty to a reddish-colored solution.

Manganous Formate.

This salt was prepared from manganous carbonate precipitated from a hot solution of manganous sulphate, by means of sodium carbonate added to alkaline reaction and decanted as rapidly as possible until free from all except very slight traces of soluble salts. It was then dissolved in formic acid and allowed to crystallize very slowly. The crystals thus obtained were allowed to recrystallize. The crystals are small, pale reddish monoclinic prisms, soluble in fifteen parts of water, and contain two molecules of water of crystallization.

Nickel Formate.

A solution of nickel chloride was treated with a slight excess of sodic hydrate, washed several times by decantation with hot water, dissolved in acid and evaporated down. A greenish crust formed, made up of very small, bright, green needles—$Ni\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + 2\,H_2O$.

Ferric Formate.

Ferric chloride was treated with excess of a solution of ammonia, washed with hot water, and allowed to digest in formic acid at a temperature which was not allowed to exceed 70°, until the hydrate of iron had completely dissolved, which required several hours. The deep-red solution was allowed to crystallize by spontaneous evaporation. Yellowish-red needles, crystallizing in radiating tufts, separated out, which formed a light, loose, coherent powder. When dried at a moderate temperature, it was readily soluble in cold water with an acid reaction. Aqueous solutions on warming became turbid from the partial decomposition of the salt into ferric hydrate and free acid. A similar decomposition takes place in solutions at ordinary temperatures after standing for some time. (The foregoing salt was made in preference to ferrous formate on account of its greater solubility.)

Mercuric Formate.

Mercuric oxide was dissolved in formic acid, but on warming the solution slightly it decomposed into the very sparingly soluble white mercurous formate, carbon dioxide and formic acid, according to the following equation:

$$2\,Hg\,(C\,HO_2)^2 = Hg_2\,(C\,HO_2)^2 + C\,HO_2H + CO_2 \text{ and}$$
$$Hg_2\,(C\,HO_2)^2 = 2\,Hg + C\,HO_2\,H + CO_2.$$

The precipitate was gray in color from the presence of free mercury. The tendency to decompose is such that in solution at ordinary temperatures these changes take place readily in the light and, with more slowness, even in the dark. The "ous" salt comes out in minute shining crystals, very insoluble in water, and on continuous warming becomes entirely converted into free mercury. The formates of silver, bismuth

tract from the minutes of the last meeting of the Committee on Library:

The Library Committee respectfully reports to the Society that it is unable to understand the plans of the Committee on Extended Accommodations as regards the general character of the new bookcases to be furnished, their location, number and size.

The Library Committee cannot intelligently carry on the work delegated to it by the Society, unless its duties and those of the Committee on Extended Accommodations be clearly defined by the Society.

A general discussion took place, and the Chairman of the Committee on Extended Accommodations explained the work and the plans of the Committee.

Prof. Houston stated the points at issue to be three, viz.:

1. Does the Society desire all its books to be placed in the new Library room? or,
2. Does it wish any in the North room? or,
3. Does it wish any in the Meeting room.

On motion of Dr. Morris it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That the stock of publications issued by the Society shall be placed in a portion of the North room.

On motion of Dr. Hayes it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That the Committee on Extended Accommodations be directed to locate and construct cases for books, and cabinets, in accordance with plans to be approved of by the *Library Committee.*

On motion of Prof. Smyth it was, *nem. con.*:

Resolved, That Daniel G. Brinton and Henry Phillips, Jr., and each of them, be appointed delegates to represent this Society at the meeting at Moscow, this year, of the Congres International d'Anthropologie et Archéologie Prehistoriques, provided that the said appointment shall entail no expense whatever upon the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOL. XXIX. JULY TO DECEMBER, 1891. No. 136.

Notes on Calospasta Lec.

By George H. Horn, M.D.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, October 2, 1891.)

Some years ago, in a critical review of the genera of Meloidæ, it seemed evident, from the modifications of the form of the tarsal claws, that some genera remained to be discovered to fill the gaps existing. These forms were indicated at the time and one of them has already been found. Another of the missing links must come in the vicinity of the genus under discussion and is really foreshadowed in the slight claw modifications already observed. That the material may be at hand and ready for use in the event of further discoveries is my excuse for presenting this short paper for the consideration of those interested.

CALOSPASTA LEC.

In the *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 60, I gave a brief table of the species then known to me. Since then another species has been described (*loc. cit.*, 1883, p. 312).

Two more new species have recently been collected, both from California, which, with the one not included in my previous table, will require some modification of it.

1. Spurs of hind tibiæ slender and not very dissimilar 2
   Spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the inner slender, the outer cylindrical and truncate.. 6
2. Elytra strongly costate .... 1. **mirabilis.**
   Elytra not costate... 3
3. Median line of front deeply impressed ; head red....... 2. **histrionica.**
   Median line of front not at all impressed ; head and thorax dark blue or green 4
4. Median line of thorax impressed; thorax not longer than wide; color green.. 3. **viridis.**
   Median line of thorax not impressed.......................... 5

5. Thorax narrow, longer than wide ; elytra ornate.
   Head and thorax obviously punctate................ 4. **elegans.**
   Head and thorax quite smooth.................. 5. **perpulchra.**
   Thorax short, nearly twice as wide as long ; black, subopaque.
   6. **Fulleri.**
6. Body above and beneath entirely black................ 7. **moesta.**
   Thorax red.
   Head and thorax sparsely but distinctly punctate, each punctured with a short, black, neat hair............. 8. **Morrisoni.**
   Head and thorax absolutely smooth, without hair.
   9. **nemognathoides.**

C. mirabilis Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870. p. 93.

In this species the antennæ are filiform, the joints closely articulated.

The anterior tarsi of the male are simple, the last ventral segment with a shallow semicircular emargination.

Occurs in Southwestern Utah, Mojave Desert and San Diego, Cal., Rock Spring and near Yuma, Ariz.

C. histrionica, n. sp.

Piceous black, moderately shining, head red, humeri triangularly orange yellow. Antennæ black, filiform, joints moderately closely articulated : head oval, smooth, with but few punctures ; median line deeply impressed, hind angles rounded, mouth parts piceous ; thorax longer than wide, much narrowed at anterior half ; disk feebly convex, transversely depressed in front, a feeble median impression posteriorly, surface almost entirely smooth ; elytra nearly twice as wide at base as the thorax, a faint slender costa on each side ; surface scabrous, the humeri nearly smooth ; body beneath piceous black, shining. Length .34–.54 inch ; 8.5–14 mm.

Male.—First three joints of the anterior tarsi thickened, gibbous on the upper side, with a deep groove producing a bilobed appearance. Last ventral with a small triangular notch.

Female.—Anterior tarsi simple. Last ventral entire.

The form of the anterior tarsi of the male is a repetition in a less marked manner of that observed in Eupompha, while the form of the head, especially in reference to the median groove of the front, is seen in both Eupompha and Tegrodera.

It seems probable that species will yet occur requiring the union of the three genera, as all of them are characterized by the claws being unequally cleft, the lower portion shorter than the upper and connate with it.

Collected near San Diego, Cal. For specimens I am indebted to the kindness of Dr. C. V. Riley.

C. viridis Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1883, p. 312.

Antennæ rather stoutly filiform, the joints closely articulated, 4–10 not longer than wide.

The thorax is wider than long, the median line impressed.

The male has simple anterior tarsi. The last ventral is broadly triangularly emarginate and impressed along the middle.

This species is notable in having the claws cleft very near the tip, so that the under portion is but little shorter than the upper.

Occurs in Colorado and New Mexico. Collected by Prof. F. H. Snow.

C. elegans, *Lec.* *Ann. Lyc.*, v, p. 161; *Proc. Acad.*, 1853, p. 341; var. *humeralis* Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 93.

Antennæ filiform, moderately closely articulated, joints all longer than wide. On each side of the front, at the insertion of the antennæ, is a gibbosity causing a deep depression above the clypeus.

When fully colored, the dull blue elytra have a yellow vitta of irregular form starting from the humeri, continuing closer to the side than the suture and with an interruption near the apex. The vitta may be reduced in size until there remains merely a triangular humeral spot.

The males have the anterior tarsi dilated, not very notably except the first joint; there is, however, no depression above. The last ventral segment is feebly triangularly emarginate.

Occurs in various parts of Southern California, from San Diego northward.

C. perpulchra Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 92.

Very like *elegans* in all its structural characters. The bright blue elytra have three yellow bands, basal, median, and apical, interrupted by the suture. This species may vary by the gradual loss of the bands, from the apical to the basal, until the elytra are entirely blue. Those with the humeral spot only resemble the var. *humeralis*, of the preceding species; but apart from the ornamentation, the two species may be distinguished by the present having a brighter blue color, smoother surface, the head and thorax quite smooth, while in *elegans* they are very obviously punctate.

The sexual characters are as in *elegans*.

Occurs in Owen's Valley, Cal.

C. Fulleri Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 59.

Black, subopaque. Antennæ filiform, but rather stout; joints closely articulated and scarcely longer than wide. Head, from in front, triangular in form, the sides parallel behind the eyes, hind angles obtuse, occiput truncate. Thorax nearly twice as wide as long.

The anterior tarsi of the male are simple; the last ventral broadly triangularly emarginate, the fifth broadly and not deeply emarginate.

Occurs in Southern California. Found rather abundantly by Mr. Morrison.

C. moesta Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1878, p. 59.

Entirely black. Thorax longer than wide, not closely punctate. Antennæ slightly thicker externally, the joints submoniliform and not

closely articulated. Tarsal claws cleft very near the base, the lower portion not half the length of the upper. Spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the outer cylindrical, the apex truncate and slightly expanded, inner spur slender.

The males have the anterior tarsi simple, the last ventral with a shallow triangular emargination.

From Southern California, precise locality not known.

C. Morrisoni, n. sp.

Elongate, black, thorax orange red. Antennæ black, slightly thickened externally, joints moniliform; head transversely quadrate, usually with a central rufous spot, parallel for a short distance behind the eyes, hind angles rounded, surface sparsely punctate; thorax scarcely longer than wide, widest one-third from apex, apical third more rapidly narrowed, posterior two-thirds slightly narrowed, disk feebly convex; a slight median depression posteriorly, surface sparsely but distinctly punctate and with shortened black hairs; elytra scabrous, with very short hairs; body beneath black, shining, sparsely pubescent; posterior tibial spurs dissimilar, the outer cylindrical, truncate, slightly broadened at tip, the inner slender and acute; claws deeply cleft, the lower portion more than half the length of the upper. Length .42–.64 inch; 10.5–16 mm.

Male.—The anterior tarsi are simple. Last ventral broadly triangularly emarginate and slightly longitudinally impressed.

In color this species resembles the following, but the head and thorax are very distinctly punctate and more or less pubescent. It is, moreover, much larger, and the surface scarcely shining.

Occurs in Southern California, and was found rather abundantly by Mr. Morrison. At the time when I had but a unique of the next species I supposed these to be merely fully-developed specimens of it.

C. nemognathoides Horn, *Trans. Am. Ent. Soc.*, 1870, p. 92.

Black, moderately shining, thorax red. Antennæ comparatively slender, the joints longer than wide, not moniliform; head quite smooth, with few very indistinct fine punctures; thorax as wide as long, sides arcuately rounded in apical half, disk convex, without impression, surface smooth and shining; elytra scabrous, sometimes feebly so, surface moderately shining; body beneath black, shining; spurs of hind tibiæ dissimilar, the inner slender, acute, the outer cylindrical, truncate, and slightly wider at tip; claws not deeply cleft, the lower portion two-thirds the length of the upper. Length .22–.32 inch; 5.5–8 mm.

In the male the anterior tarsi are slender. The last ventral segment is deeply incised.

This species might be supposed to be merely a feebly developed form of the preceding. The differences have there been given, to which might here be added the form of the antennæ. It also resembles several of our species of Nemognatha.

Occurs in Owen's Valley, Cal., and in Arizona near Fort Yuma.

The Electrolysis of Metallic Formates.

By Hill Sloane Warwick.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 6, 1891.)

The facility with which many metallic formates could be reduced to the metallic state by heat, or in the case of silver and mercury, even by the action of light, having led to the hope that they might be employed with particular advantage in electrolysis, the following series of experiments were made upon solutions of copper, zinc and cadmium formates, in order to ascertain the effect of dilution, temperature and pole separation, as well as the conditions necessary in order to effect their quantitative estimation and separation. The current was generated by a battery of ten cells, of the "crowfoot" type, each cell being 3.1 dm. in height, by 1.9 dm. in diameter, and having a capacity of 2 liters; the dimensions of the zincs were 1.5 cm. by 1.5 cm., and of the radiating copper plates constituting the positive pole 1.5 cm. by 1.5 cm. By means of this battery a comparatively uniform current of 2.8 c.c. electrolytic gas per minute was generated after the cells had been in use for some time.

The strength of the current was measured by means of an ordinary voltameter, and was ascertained before and after the completion of the experiment. For the deposition of small quantities of metal, thick platinum-foil electrodes were used, 3.8 cm. wide, and immersed to the depth of 3.8 cm. in the solution. For quantities above .05 gram, they were unsatisfactory, the metal showing a great tendency to separate in a spongy condition at the edge. In the earlier determinations a platinum dish was used, weighing about 67 grams, and having a capacity of 150 c.c.; in the later ones a dish weighing 117 grams, and with a capacity of 275 c.c., was employed. The results obtained with the larger dish were necessarily somewhat less exact than with the one of smaller size. The positive pole consisted of a thick platinum wire, the lower portion of which was wound into a horizontal spiral. In some of the separations it was found expedient to substitute for the spiral a small platinum crucible 2.5 cm. in height and 2.8 cm. in diameter, closed by a cork, through which passed a copper wire in contact with the bottom of the crucible. In order to regulate the distance between the poles, a filter stand was used, having inserted on its movable arm an ordinary binding screw, to which the positive pole was attached.

The following formates were prepared:

Copper Formate.

This salt was made by precipitating cupric oxide from a hot solution of copper sulphate, by means of caustic potash; the precipitate was washed by decantation until free from traces of potash; it was then dissolved in formic acid having the sp. gr. 1.015, obtained in the usual way from oxalic

The hydrate of iron in the solution disappeared, but adherent crusts still remained on the surface of the cadmium.

Zinc from Iron.

Several tentative experiments were made, but as the iron showed the same tendency to separate on the sides of the dish, as in the preceding determinations, they were not continued.

Copper from Cobalt.

	Copper taken.	Cobalt taken.	Copper found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c.c.	c.c.	Hours.	Percentage.
(1)	.1101	.1080	.1105	100	175	1	21	+.36
(2)	"	"	.1095	"	"	"	17	—.54
(3)	"	"	.1097	"	"	"	"	—.36
(4)	"	"	.1107	"	"	"	18	+.54
(5)	"	"	.1098	"	"	1.2	17	—.27
(6)	"	"	.1097	"	"	1	16	—.36

On attempting to prepare a solution of cobaltous formate for the above determinations, it was found that the salt made according to the method already described was not readily soluble in water. The solution was therefore prepared by double decomposition as follows: 500 c.c. of water containing 6.563 grams of sodium formate was mixed with an equal amount of water in which 8.728 grains of cobalt chloride had been dissolved.

Of this solution 50 c.c. was taken, containing .1080 grams of cobalt. The distance between the poles was 3.8 cm. except (1) and (4) in which it was 2.8 cm. Both of the latter were spongy; the others slightly so. As the conditions, otherwise, were similar, the difference in the character of the deposits was apparently due to the separation of the poles. Traces of cobalt were found in all the copper deposits. The copper was all out except in (3), (5) and (6), in which the solutions were colored yellowish brown on the addition of hydrogen sulphide.

The copper deposit was dark in color and adherent, although not very compact on the bottom of the dish.

Copper from Nickel.

	Copper taken.	Nickel taken.	Copper found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c.c.	c.c.	Hours.	Percentage.
(1)	.1101	.1028	.1095	75	175	1	20	—.54
(2)	"	"	.1097	100	"	"	17	—.36
(3)	"	"	"	"	"	"	18	—.36
(4)	"	"	.1098	"	"	1.2	17	—.27
(5)	"	"	.1096	"	"	1	"	—.46
(6)	"	"	.1098	"	"	"	"	—.27

The same trouble was experienced in preparing a satisfactory solution of pure nickel formate as with cobalt and it was found advisable to prepare the solution by double decomposition in the same way as the latter salt, 500 c.c. of this solution contained 8.3077 grams of nickel chloride and 6.2469 grams of sodium formate. In both cases a slight excess of sodium formate was used. The copper contained traces of nickel and slightly colored the solution when tested with hydrogen sulphide. The conditions were similar to those given under cobalt and the results were quite as satisfactory. The copper was bright and compact.

Cadmium from Cobalt.

	Cadmium. taken.	Cobalt. taken.	Cadmium found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c.c.	c.c.	Hours.	Percentage.
(1)	.0984	.1080	....	25	100	.5	22	....
(2)	"	"	....	"	150	.8	45	....
(3)	"	"	....	50	"	1.5	18	....

It was naturally expected that cadmium would be completely precipitated from cobalt and nickel by employing a weak current, but from an examination of the above results, it will be seen that a separation was not accomplished.

Even with a current of 1.5 c.c. OH gas per minute, the cadmium failed to deposit completely and was contaminated with cobalt (3). (1) was very spongy and the solution still contained cadmium at the expiration of 22 hours. The current was then increased and allowed to act for 45 hours (2). Cadmium was found in the solution, cobalt in the deposit. The distance between the electrodes was 2.8 cm.

Cadmium from Nickel.

	Cadmium taken.	Nickel taken.	Cadmium found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c c.	c.c. .	Hours.	Percentage.
(1)	0984	.1028	.0758	35	150	.5	19	....
(2)	"	"	.1045	"	"	1.5	21	....
(3)	"	"	.1348	50	125	1.5	17	....

The results were quite as unsatisfactory as with cobalt. Cadmium was found in all three solutions, and more or less nickel was found in the deposits. In (3) the nickel came out as a gray deposit on the cadmium. The deposit was firm and adherent, although dark in color. The distance between the electrodes was 2.5 cm., except (3), in which the pole separation was 2.8 cm.

Zinc from Cobalt.

	Zinc present.	Cobalt present.	Zinc found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c.c.	c.c.	Hours.	Percentage.
(1)	.1006	.1080	....	50	175	3	17	....
(2)	"	"	....	100	"	5	18	....

Zinc from Nickel.

	Zinc present.	Nickel present.	Zinc found.	Free acid.	H_2O.	OH gas per min.	Time.	Difference from theory.
	Grams.	Grams.	Grams.	c.c.	c.c.	c.c.	Hours.	Percentage.
(3)	.1006	.1028	....	50	175	2.7	18	....
(4)	"	"	....	100	"	5	"	....

(2) and (4) were performed under similar conditions. The distance between the poles was 2.2 cm. The current was generated by a battery of Bunsen cells. Even with a current of 5 c.c. gas per minute zinc was found in the solution in traces, while considerable quantities of cobalt and nickel separated as a coating upon the cadmium. (1) and (3) were also failures. A separation was not obtained even approximately.

Summary.

As a result of the foregoing experiments, it was found that the amount of copper, cadmium or zinc deposited in a given time was proportional to the strength of the solution, and that the presence of free acid in moderate quantity did not materially affect the result.

Increasing the distance between the poles resulted in diminishing the amount of metal deposited, but the rate of decrease diminished as the distance between the electrodes increased.

Elevation of temperature caused an increase in the amount of metal deposited, the rate of increase being greatest at 80° in neutral and acid copper solutions, and at 60° in cadmium solutions containing free acid. On the other hand, the amount of zinc deposited in solutions, to which free acid had been added, diminished as the temperature rose, nothing being deposited at 80°.

Attempts to secure compact and adherent deposits of cadmium and zinc in neutral solutions were failures.

In acid solution copper and cadmium separated completely and satisfactorily. The zinc deposits were spongy, but the precipitation was complete.

Lead was mainly deposited on the negative pole, both in neutral and acid solutions. Manganese was precipitated on both poles, but the amount of peroxide separating on the kathode was reduced to mere traces by the presence of free acid.

The following separations were satisfactorily accomplished: copper from zinc, cobalt and nickel and cadmium from zinc and manganese.

Attempts to deposit copper in the presence of iron and cadmium, and zinc in the presence of iron, cobalt and nickel, were successful. Nor was it possible in the presence of the last three metals named to estimate cadmium.

In conclusion, I wish to express my obligations to Prof. Edgar F. Smith, at whose suggestion the work was undertaken. To his supervision and advice is largely due whatever value may attach to these results.

Stated Meeting, September 4, 1891.

Present, 3 members.

President, Mr. Fraley, in the Chair.

Letters of acceptance of membership were received from Dr. Caspar René Gregory, Leipzig, Germany; Dr. E. T. Hamy, Prof. E. Mascart, Dr. Julius Oppert, Prof. A. De Quatrefages, Paris, France; Prof. W. Cawthorne Unwin, Kensington, England; Rt. Rev. William Stubbs, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of Oxford, England; Sir Robert S. Ball, Dublin, Ireland; Prof. Charles E. Monroe, Newport, R. I.; Prof. Henry W. Spangler, University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Harrison Allen, of Philadelphia, resigned by letter from membership in the Society.

On motion, the resignation was accepted.

Letters of envoy were received from the Geological Survey of India, Calcutta; Académie Royale des Sciences, Amsterdam; Société Royale des Sciences, Upsal; Naturforschende Verein, Brünn, Austria; K. Geodätische Institut, Berlin; Schlesische Gesellschaft für Väterlandische Cultur, Breslau; Verein für Naturkunde, Cassel; K. Sächs. Meteorologische Institut, Chemnitz; Siebenbürgische Verein für Naturwissen, Hermanstadt; Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Akadémie, Halle; Societa Italiana Delle Scienze, Rome; Société des Antiquaires de Picardie, Amiens; Académie des Sciences, Arts et Belles-Lettres, Caen; Musée Guimet, Ecole Polytechnique, Bureau des Longitudes, Paris; Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society; Meteorological Office, London; Royal Irish Academy, Dublin; Smithsonian Institution, Washington.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Geological Survey of India, Calcutta (134); Tokyo Library, Anthropological Society, Asiatic Society of Japan, Tokyo (134); Comité Geologique de la Russie, St. Petersburg (134); Dr. Otto Donner, Helsingfors, Finland (134); Royal Danish Geographical Society (131–134), Prof. J. S. Steinstrup (134),

Copenhagen; K. K. Central-Anstalt für Meteorologie, etc., Drs. A. Brezina, E. Suess, Friederich Müller, Vienna (134); Hungarian Academy of Sciences (128–131), Prof. Paul Hunfalvy, Budapest (130–133); Naturforschende Gesellschaft des Osterlandes, Altenberg (134); Gesellschaft für Erdkunde (134), K. Geodätische Institut, Berlin (131–134); Naturhistorische Verein, Bonn (129); Naturwissenschaftliche Verein, Bremen (134); K. Sächsische Meteorologische Institut, Chemnitz (131–134); Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Emden (134); Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt (130); Dr. A. Weisbach, Freiberg (134); K. Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Akademie, Halle a. S. (109, 130–133, and Trans., xiv, 3); Geographische Gesellschaft (131), Deutsche Seewarte (131–134), Hamburg; Prof. Hermann Kopp, Heidelberg (131–134); Naturhistorische Gesellschaft, Hannover (134); K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Dr. Julius Platzman, Prof. J. Victor Carus, Dr. Otto Böhtlingk, Leipzig (134); Naturwissenschaftliche Verein, Osnabrück (131–134); K. Sternwarte, München (134); Verein für Vaterländische Naturkunde, Würtemberg (129, 130).

Accessions to the Library were announced from the Institut Egyptien, Cairo; Geological Survey of India, Calcutta; Government Astronomer, Madras; Norwegische Meteorologische Institut, Christiania; Société Roumaine de Geographie, Bucharest; Nederlandsche Botanische Vereeniging, Nijmegen; Friessch Genootschap voor Geschied, etc., Leuwarden; Académie Royale des Sciences, Prof. Ad. De Ceuleneer, Bruxelles; Augustus R. Grote, Bremen; Tudományos Akademia, Budapest; Ostschweizerische Geogr.-Commerc. Gesellschaft, St. Gall; M. Ferdinando Borsari, Naples; M. A. Del Bon, Padua; Profs. Léon de Rosny, Emile Schwærer, Edward Pepper, Paris; Le Comte de Charencey, St. Maurice; Mr. Samuel Timmins, Coventry, England; Philosophical and Literary Society, Leeds; Mr. James L. Bowes, Liverpool; Meteorological Council, Society for Psychical Research, Profs. Joseph Prestwich, Thomas E. Pickett, London; Nova Scotian Institute of Natural Science, Halifax; Hemenway Expedition, Mr. Robert T.

Swan, Boston; Scientific Alliance, American Museum of Natural History, Prof. Edward V. D'Invilliers, New York; Empire State Association of Deaf-mutes, Rome, N. Y.; Mr. William E. Griffis, Schenectady; Mr. Charles Earle, Princeton; Mr. Samuel F. Bigelow, Newark; Geological Survey of New Jersey, Trenton; Academy of Natural Sciences, Hon. Charles O'Neill, Messrs. R. Meade Bache, Henry Phillips, Jr., Drs. J. C. Morris, Charles A. Oliver, Persifor Frazer, J. E. Ives, Edmund J. James, W. S. W. Ruschenberger, Miss Emily Phillips, Philadelphia; Wyoming Historical and Geological Society, Wilkesbarre; Historical Society of Delaware, Wilmington; Department of the Interior, Smithsonian Institution, Col. Garrick Mallery, Messrs. A. C. Peale, W. H. Seaman, Lester F. Ward, Washington, D. C.

A photograph of the Mansion and Graves of the Penn family, in England, was received from Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia.

Photographs for the Society's Album were received from Mr. Samuel Timmins, Coventry, England; Mr. Louis Vossion, Philadelphia, and Prof. Robert W. Rogers, Carlisle, Pa.

The death of James Russell Lowell (Boston, Mass., August 12, 1891, æt. 72) was announced.

Pending nominations 1230 and 1231 were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, September 18, 1891.

Present, 2 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Letters of envoy were received from the Colonial Museum of New Zealand, Wellington; Observatoire Physique Central, St. Petersburg; Université Royale de Norvége, Christiania; Musée Teyler, Harlem, Holland; K. Preussische Meteorolo-

gische Institut, Berlin; Musée Guimet, Paris; Royal Observatory, Greenwich; Zoölogical and Royal Statistical Societies, London; Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Boston; U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, Washington.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Bern (134); University, Basle (134); Société Royale de Zoologie Natura Artis Magistra (134), Academie Royale des Sciences (127–130, and Trans., xvi, 2, 3), Amsterdam; Royal Library, (134); K. Zoologische-Botanische Genootschap, 'S Gravenhage (134); Royal Netherland Museum of Antiquities, Leiden (134); K. Danske Videnskabernes Selskab, Copenhagen (130, 131, and Trans. xvi, 3); Société Royale des Sciences, Upsal (125–129); Bibliothèque Royale de Belgique, Bruxelles (131–133); Marquis Antonio de Gregorio, Palermo (134); R. Accademia di Scienze, etc., Modena (125–129 and Trans. xvi, 2); Università, Pisa (134); R. Comitato Geologico, Rome (134); R. Bibliotica N. C., Firenze (134); R. Osservatorio, Turin (134); Société Linnéene, Bordeaux (134); Prof. Lucien Adam, Rennes, France (134); Bureau Centrale Météorologique (131–134), Société D'Anthropologie, "Cosmos," Marquis de Nadaillac, M. A. Des Cloizeaux, Paris (134); Sir Henry Thompson, London (134); Mr. Samuel Timmins, Coventry, England (134); Philosophical Society, Prof. Dr. J. P. Postgate, Cambridge, England (134); Royal Institution, Victoria Institute, Royal Astronomical Society, Linnean Society, Royal Society, Society of Antiquaries, London (134); Geographical Society, Manchester (131–134); Natural History Society of Northumberland, Durham and Newcastle-upon-Tyne (134); Royal Dublin Society (134); Prof. James Geikie, Royal Observatory, Royal Society, Royal Scottish Geographical Society, Edinburgh (131–133); Free Public Library, Jersey City (131–134); Prof. Thomas Chase, Providence (131–133); Drs. E. D. Cope, W. G. A. Bonwill, J. M. Maisch (134), "National Baptist," Philadelphia; University of California, Prof. Joseph Le Conte, Berkeley, Cal. (134); Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, Riverside, Cal. (134); Free Public Library, Mr. George Davidson, San Francisco (134).

Letters of acknowledgment (135) were received from the Canadian Institute, Toronto; Geological Survey, Ottawa; Mr. Horatio Hale, Clinton; Nova Scotian Institute of Natural Science; Maine Historical Society, Society of Natural History, Portland; Vermont Historical Society, Montpelier; Prof. C. H. Hitchcock, Hanover, N. H.; Massachusetts Historical Society, State Library of Massachusetts, Hon. Robert Winthrop, Mr. Hamilton A. Hill, Boston; Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Mr. Robert N. Toppan, Prof. J. D. Whitney, Cambridge, Mass.; Essex Institute, Salem; Free Public Library, New Bedford; Dr. Pliny Earle, Northampton; American Antiquarian Society, Worcester; Rhode Island Historical Society, Providence Franklin Society, Providence; Prof. Charles E. Monroe, Newport; New Haven Colony Historical Society; Connecticut Historical Society, Hartford; Buffalo Library; Prof. E. North, Clinton, N. Y.; Profs. T. F. Crane, J. M. Hart, B. G. Wilder, Ithaca; Vassar Brothers Institute, Poughkeepsie; Oneida Historical Society, Utica; U. S. Military Academy, West Point; Prof. Henry M. Baird, Columbia College, Astor Library, American Museum of Natural History, New York Hospital, Academy of Medicine, University of the City of New York, Historical Society, Meteorological Observatory, Prof. J. J. Stephenson, Capt. R. S. Hayes, New York; Rev. Joseph F. Garrison, Mr. Isaac C. Martindale, Camden; Free Public Library, Jersey City; New Jersey Historical Society, Newark; Nassau Hall Library, Prof. C. A. Young, Princeton; Dr. R. H. Alison, Ardmore; Prof. Martin H. Boyé, Coopersburg; Hon. Eckley B. Coxe, Drifton; Dr. Traill Green, Profs. J. N. Moore, Thomas C. Porter, Easton; Mr. Andrew S. McCreath, Harrisburg; Mr. Ario Pardee, Hazleton; Mr. John Fulton, Johnstown; Linnean Society, Lancaster; Mr. Peter F. Rothermel, Linfield; Prof. John F. Carll, Pleasantville; Mr. Heber S. Thompson, Pottsville; Rev. F. A. Mühlenberg, Reading; Mr. M. Fisher Longstreth, Sharon Hill; Philosophical Society, Messrs. William Butler, Philip P. Sharples, West Chester; Mr. Thomas Meehan, Germantown; Wagner Free Institute of Science,

Academy of Natural Sciences, Zoölogical Society, Pennsylvania Hospital, Library Company of Philadelphia, Messrs. R. L. Ashhurst, John Ashhurst, Jr., R. Meade Bache, W. G. A. Bonwill, Charles Bullock, Cadwalader Biddle, S. Castner, E. D. Cope, J. Solis Cohen, Thomas M. Cleeman, Paterson Du Bois, Robert P. Field, Persifor Frazer, George Freebis, Frederick A. Genth, Frederick A. Genth, Jr., H. D. Gregory, Joseph S. Harris, Lewis M. Haupt, William A. Ingham, W. W. Jefferis, John Marshall, J. W. Maisch, James T. Mitchell, Charles A. Oliver, Franklin Platt, Robert Patterson, C. Stuart Patterson, C. N. Peirce, Henry Phillips, Jr., William Pepper, Frederick Prime, Theodore D. Rand, W. S. W. Ruschenberger, L. A. Scott, Coleman Sellers, Carl Seiler, Albert H. Smyth, H. W. Spangler, H. C. Trumbull, W. P. Tatham, D. K. Tuttle, Talcott Williams, Joseph Wharton, Louis Vossion, Philadelphia; Maryland Historical Society, Peabody Institute, Institute for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts, Baltimore; U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis; Smithsonian Institution, Weather Bureau, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, U. S. Geological Survey, U. S. Naval Observatory, Anthropological Society, Mr. W. B. Taylor, Surgeon-General's Office, Dr. A. S. Gatschet, Major J. W. Powell, Prof. Herman Haupt, Capt. Thomas Jefferson Lee, Washington, D. C.; University of Virginia; Leander McCormick Observatory, Charlottesville; Virginia Historical Society, Richmond; Mr. Jed. Hotchkiss, Staunton; Georgia Historical Society, Savannah; Cincinnati Society of Natural History; Cincinnati Observatory; Prof. E. W. Claypole, Akron, O.; Dr. Robert Peter, Lexington, Ky.; Athenæum, Columbia, Tenn.; Geological Survey of Missouri, Jefferson City; Prof. J. C. Branner, Little Rock, Ark.; Col. William Ludlow, Detroit; Wisconsin State Historical Society, Madison; Davenport Academy of Sciences; Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka; Colorado Scientific Society, Denver; University of California, Prof. Joseph Le Conte, Berkeley; Lick Observatory, Mt. Hamilton, Cal.; Prof. Daniel Kirkwood, Riverside, Cal.; Mr. George Davidson, San Francisco; Observatorio Astronomico Nacional Mexicano, Tacu-

baya; Sociedad Cientifica, "Antonio Alzate," Mexico; Bishop Crescencio Carrillo, Merida, Yucatan.

Accessions to the Library were announced from the Comité de Conservation des Monuments de L'Art Arabe, Cairo, Egypt; Royal Society of Tasmania; Secretary of Mines, Melbourne, Victoria; New Zealand Institute, Wellington; Tokyo Library; K. Akademie der Wissenschaften, St. Petersburg; M. O. A. L. Pihl, Christiania; Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Bamberg; K. P. Geodätische Institut, Association Géodésique Internationale, Berlin; Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Emden; Verein für die Geschichte und Altertumskunde, Erfurt; Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt a. O.; K. Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Deutsche Akademie der Naturforscher, Halle a. S.; Schweizerische Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Bern; Société de Physique et d'Histoire Naturelle, Geneva; Biblioteca N. C. di Firenze; Direzione Générale della Statistica, Rome; Ministère de l'Instruction Publique et des Beaux Arts, Société Americaine de France, Paris; Dr. John Evans, Hemel Hempstead; Natural History and Antiquarian Society, Penzance; Royal Society, Edinburgh; Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Boston; Dr. J. S. Newberry, New York; Departments of Labor, State, War, Smithsonian Institution, Mr. Sanford Fleming, Washington, D. C.; Col. Charles C. Jones, Augusta, Ga.; Mr. William Harden, Savannah; Dennison University, Granville, O.

Pending nominations Nos. 1230 and 1231 were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, October 2, 1891.

Present, 9 members.

Vice-President, Dr. RUSCHENBERGER, in the Chair.

Letters of envoy were received from the Naturforschende Verein, Brünn; K. P. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Berlin;

K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Leipzig; Gesellschaft zur Beförderung der gesammten Naturwissenschaften, Marburg; Verein für Vaterländische Naturkunde in Würtemberg, Stuttgart; Museo Nacional de Buenos Aires; Oficina Meteorológica Argentina, Cordoba.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Imperial Academy of Science, Prof. Serge Nikitin, St. Petersburg (134); Societatea Geografica Românа, Bucharest (131–134); K. Danske Videnskabernes Selskab, Copenhagen (134); Université R. de Norvège, Christiania (128–134); Société Entomologique de Belgique, Bruxelles (134); Fondation de P. Teyler van der Hulst, Harlem (134); Naturforschende Verein in Brünn (128–133); Académie des Sciences, Cracow, Austria (134); Osservatorio Marittimo, Trieste (131–134); Section für Naturkunde des Ö. T. C., Vienna (134); K. Geodätische Institut (135), K. P. Meteorologische Institut (134), Deutsche Geologische Gesellschaft (135), Berlin; K. Sächsische Altertums Verein, Dresden (134); Naturwissenschaftliche Verein des Reg.-Bez., Frankfurt a. O. (134); Gr. Hess. Univ. Bibliothek, Giessen (129); K. Leopoldinisch-Carolinische Akademie, Halle a. S. (134); Verein für Thüringische Geschichte und Altertumskunde, Jena (134); Verein für Erdkunde, Metz (131–134); Dr. C. A. Dohrn, Stettin (134); Verein für Vaterländische Naturkunde in Würtemberg, Stuttgart (131–134 and Trans. xvi, 3); Prof. Johannes Dümichen, Strasbourg (134); Prof. Guido Cora, Turin (134); R. Accademia di Scienze, etc., Modena (134); Societa Africana D'Italia, Naples (131–134); R. Accademia di Scienze, etc., Padua (131–134); M. A. Des Cloizeaux, Dr. E. T. Hamy, Paris (135); Cte. de Charencey, St. Maurice les Charencey (134); Institution of Civil Engineers (129, 130), Sir James Paget (134), London; Mr. Alfred R. Wallace, Parkstone, England (131–134); Prof. Robert W. Rogers, Carlisle (135); Col. Garrick Mallery (135), Prof. C. V. Riley (134), Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.; Museo Nacional, Dr. H. Burmeister, Buenos Aires (134); Instituto Fisico-Geografico Nacional, San José de Costa Rica (131–134); South African Philosophical Society, Cape Town (131–133).

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Tokyo Library; R. Accademia Degli Agiati, Rovereto, Austria; Naturwissenschaftliche Gesellschaft "Isis," Dresden; Société des Sciences Physiques et Naturelles, Bordeaux; Bureau des Longitudes, Paris; Société de Geographie, Toulouse; M. Nicholas Ball, Block Island, R. I.; New York Forest Commission, Albany; American Museum of Natural History, Prof. J. S. Newberry, New York; M. J. A. Udden, Rock Island, Ill.; Academy of Sciences, St. Louis; University of California, Sacramento; Observatorio Meteorologico-Magnetico Central, Mexico; Commissão Geographica e Geologica, San Paulo, Brazil; Museo Nacional Oficina Meteorologica Argentina, Buenos Aires; Direccion Central de Estadistica, Guatemala, C. A.

The death of D. Humphrey Storer, M.D., Boston, September 10, 1891, aged 87, was announced.

Prof. Cope offered a paper for the Transactions on the "Ophidians of North America," which was referred to Drs. Horn, Ryder and Heilprin.

Dr. Horn made a communication on the genus Calospaste.

Dr. Franz Boaz, of Worcester, Mass., presented through the Secretaries a paper entitled, "Vocabularies of the Tlingit, Haida, etc., Languages."

Prof. Cope made some remarks on the results of a late expedition to the Gallapagos islands.

Pending nominations Nos. 1230 and 1231 were read.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Stated Meeting, October 16. 1891.

Present, 17 members.

Vice-President, Dr. Ruschenberger in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

A circular was received from the Local Committee on Organization of Pan-Republic Congress and Human Freedom

League, inviting the Society to its reunion on October 12 and 13, 1891, at the State House and Academy of Music.

A circular from the Naturhistorische Gesellschaft zu Nürnberg, announcing the celebration of its ninetieth year.

A circular from the Académie Royale des Sciences de Lisbonne, announcing the death of its Secretary, José Maria Latino Coelho, on August 29, 1891.

Mr. Paul Leicester Ford requested by letter the permission to consult the draft of the Declaration of Independence, now stored away with other valuable papers of the Society.

Letters from the President and Mr. W. S. Baker were read in support of the request.

On motion, the Curators were authorized to restore to a place in the fireproof building of the Society its manuscript of the Declaration of Independence in the autograph of Thomas Jefferson.

Dr. Hays moved as an amendment "that it be kept in a fireproof safe."

The amendment, being put to a vote, was not agreed to, and the original motion was adopted by the Society.

On motion, it was resolved that Mr. Ford be permitted to have access to the document in question in the presence of one of the Curators of the Society.

Letters of envoy were received from the Académie Royale des Sciences, etc., de Belgique, Bruxelles; Société des Sciences Physiques et Naturelles, Bordeaux; Bureau des Longitudes, École Polytechnique, Musée Guimet, Ministère des Travaux Publiques, Paris.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Royal Society of N. S. Wales, Sydney, Australia (134); Accademia degli Agiati, Rovereto, Austria (134); K. K. Naturhistorisches Hofmuseum, Dr. Aristides Brezina, Vienna (135); Dr. Caspar René Gregory, Leipzig (135); Académie des Sciences, Belles Lettres et Arts, Bordeaux (134); Société de Geographie, Lille, France (135); Ecole d'Agriculture, Montpellier (135); Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle (128); M. Victor Duruy, Prof. A. de Quatrefages, Paris (135); Natural History and Philo-

sophical Society, Belfast (134); College of Pharmacy, Philadelphia (135); Central Meteorological Observatory, Mexico (135); Mr. Everard F. im Thurn, British Guiana (135).

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Société Royale de Géographie d'Anvers; Académie Royale des Sciences, Bruxelles; Geographische Gesellschaft, Bern; Naturhistorische Gesellschaft, Nürnberg; Accademia delle Scienze, Torino; Ministère des Travaux Publiques, Paris; Yorkshire Geological and Polytechnic Society, Halifax, England; Geological and Natural History Survey of Canada, Montreal Geological Society of America, Rochester, N. Y.; Free Public Library of Jersey City; Messrs. J. E. Ives, Henry Phillips, Jr., Pennsylvania Prison Society, Philadelphia; U. S. Department of Agriculture, U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C.; Mr. W. Curtis Taylor, Tacoma, Wash.

A photograph was received for the Album from Dr. Caspar René Gregory, Leipzig.

The Committee appointed to examine Prof. Cope's paper, offered at the last meeting for the Transactions, reported that he desired to withdraw the same and recommended that the request be granted. On motion, the Society permitted the paper to be withdrawn.

The stated business of the meeting was then taken up, and pending nominations Nos. 1230 and 1231 were read, spoken to and balloted for.

The following minute was read from the Library Committee:

STATED MEETING, OCTOBER 10, 1891.

The Chairman was authorized to report to the Society the suggestion that the fireproof for the valuable books and papers heretofore ordered by a vote of the Society, which order was not executed because of the absence of any sufficient foundation for the fireproof, be now carried into effect, as the walls of the building appear to be entirely sufficient for that purpose.

On motion, the Library Committee respectfully requested the Curators to indicate to the Committee what cases they will need for the purposes mentioned by Dr. Morris to the Committee for the display of antiquities, etc.

Dr. Morris, on behalf of the Curators, stated the reasons why at present the Curators could not designate exactly how much was wanted; that much of the collections of the Society was as yet unpacked and temporarily inaccessible; that until the Curators knew how much space would be needed they could not designate it.

Mr. McKean moved that the Committee on Hall be requested to carry into effect the order of the Society, made several years ago, to procure a fireproof safe for the safe custody of the valuable books and papers of the Society, or to inform the Society, if they find such to be the fact, that the walls of the Society's building are not yet deemed strong enough to support such a safe.

Mr. DuBois inquired as to whether any limit had been placed as to the size and price of such a safe.

The Secretaries replied that in the original motion there was no limitation.

Dr. Cope suggested that a new base might have to be built to support so great a weight.

Dr. Greene suggested that several small safes might better serve the purpose than one large one.

Prof. Barker suggested that a vault could be erected in the basement of the Society's building as a receptacle for its documents.

On motion of Mr. McKean, the motion was referred to the Hall Committee.

All other business of the meeting having been disposed of, the Tellers reported the result of the voting for candidates to the Presiding Member, who declared that

2197. Prof. George Forbes, F.R.S., London,

2198. Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten, Philadelphia,

had been duly elected members of the Society.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, November 6, 1891.

Present, 31 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten, a newly elected member, was presented to the Chair and took his seat.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

A letter of acceptance of membership from Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten, Philadelphia.

A letter from Mr. William Curtis Taylor, requesting exchanges on behalf of the Tacoma Academy of Science, Tacoma, Wash. On motion, the Academy was ordered to receive Proceedings from No. 96 and Catalog.

A letter from Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten, in behalf of various persons, requesting the Society to accept their gift of a marble relief portrait of the late Mrs. Emma Seiler, and to fix a time for its formal presentation. On motion of Mr. Dudley, the gift was accepted and the 20th of November was selected.

Letters of envoy were received from the Société Imp. Russe de Géographie, St. Petersburg; Institut Météorologique de Roumanie, Bucharest; Meteorological Office, Royal Statistical Society, London; Royal Dublin Society, Royal Irish Academy, Dublin; Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg; Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn.

Letters of acknowledgment (135) were received from Prof. Serge Nikitin, St. Petersburg; Anthropologische Gesellschaft, Vienna; Prof. Peter Ritter von Tunner, Leoben, Austria; Prof. Abel Hovelacque, Paris; Mr. Samuel Timmins, Arley, England; Philosophical Society, University Library, Cambridge, England; Victoria Institute, Linnean Society, Royal Society, Royal Meteorological Society, Messrs. C. Juhlin Dannfeld, P. L. Sclater, London; Manchester Geographical Society, Philosophical Society, Glasgow; Prof. Andrew A. Blair, Mr.

Joseph G. Rosengarten, Philadelphia; Kansas Academy of Science, Topeka.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Société Imp. Russe de Géographie, St. Petersburg; Institut Météorologique de Roumanie, Bucharest; Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen, Batavia; K. Akademie van Wetenschappen, Amsterdam; Instituto y Observatorio de Marina, San Fernando; Philological Society, Cambridge, England; Meteorological Council, London; Mr. Samuel Timmins, Arley, near Coventry, England; Mr. James B. Francis, Lowell, Mass.; Massachusetts Historical Society, Boston; Hartford Theological Seminary, Mr. J. A. Spalding, Hartford; Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg; American Society for Extension of University Teaching, University Marine Biological Association, Prof. Edwin J. Houston, MacCalla & Company, Philadelphia; Commissioner of Pensions, Bureau of Education, U. S. Commission of Fish and Fisheries, Dr. Albert S. Gatschet, Washington, D. C.

The death of Hon. William Morris Davis at Philadelphia, was announced as having occurred in October, 1891.

On motion of Secretary Brinton, the paper of Dr. Boaz, on "Indian Languages," was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

A communication on "The Electrolysis of Metallic Formates," by Hill Sloane Warwick, was presented by Secretary Barker.

Curator Patterson Du Bois presented the following report on the examination, by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, of the autograph copy of the Declaration of Independence owned by the Society.

Notes on the Various Copies of the Declaration of Independence in Jefferson's Handwriting.

According to order the Society's copy of the Declaration of Independence was examined by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in the meeting room of the Society, on Wednesday, October 21, 1891, in my presence as Curator. The following facts were obtained from Mr. Ford.

There were nine known MS. copies of the Declaration :

1. Jefferson's original first draft is now in the possession of the Department of State at Washington. It contains five emendations by Franklin and two by John Adams.

2. On the 28th of June, 1776, a fair copy was submitted to Congress. It was discussed on the 3d and 4th of July, and passed late in the day of the 4th of July. There is no evidence that this copy, or any other, was signed, except by the regular official attests, on the 4th of July. All traces of this copy have been lost for many years. The engrossed copy now in the Department of State at Washington, which is, of course, not in Jefferson's handwriting, was signed on the 2d of August following—some of the signers not having been in or members of the Congress on the 4th of July, while others who were there and voted for the Declaration were not among the signers.

Between July 4th and 8th, Jefferson wrote copies as follows :

3. One for John Page.

4. One for George Wythe.

5. One for Edmund Pendleton.

6. One for Richard Henry Lee, the copy now in the possession of the American Philosophical Society, to which it was presented by Lee's grandson.

7. In 1825, Jefferson wrote that he had given a copy to Mazzei, who had subsequently given it to a French countess. Of this we know nothing further.

8. A fair copy was written for Madison, perhaps fifteen years or so after the copies made in 1776 were written. This is now in the possession of the Department of State.

9. In 1821, Jefferson wrote a copy which he inserted in his autobiography.

This Society has in its possession the letter, dated July 8, 1776, in which Jefferson presents to Richard Henry Lee the copy above numbered 6. Jefferson writes : "I enclose you a copy of the Declaration of Independence as agreed to by the House, and also as originally framed ; you will judge whether it is the better or worse for the critics." On July 21, Lee acknowledged it, and said : "I wish sincerely, as well for the honor of Congress as for that of the States, that the manuscript had not been mangled as it is." On this Mr. Ford observes : "In 1825, when this manuscript came into the possession of your Society, John Vaughan, who, I believe, was then your Secretary, wrote to Jefferson, asking him 'if it was the original draft.' To this Jefferson replied, stating it was not, but added : 'Whenever in the course of the composition, a copy became overcharged and difficult to be read with amendments, I copied it fair, and when that also was crowded with other amendments, another fair copy was made, etc. These rough drafts I sent to distant friends who were anxious to know what was passing. . . . Whether the paper sent to R. H. Lee was one of these, or whether, after

the passage of the instrument, I made a copy for him with the amendments of Congress, may, I think, be known from the face of the paper.' An examination of the paper proves conclusively that it is the latter, to which has been added an endorsement in the handwriting of Richard Henry Lee, and marginal notes in the handwriting of Arthur Lee, both of which are attested by Richard Henry Lee, the grandson of the former, on the document itself. As Arthur Lee was absent from this country in 1776, and did not return to it till 1779, his notes must have been made subsequent to the latter date."

The underscoring and bracketing in the copies 3, 4, 5, 6 signify, then, that Congress either struck out or altered the phraseology of those passages.

Mr. Ford desires me to return his hearty thanks to the Society for the privilege of examining the manuscript. It seems to me that the Society is likewise indebted to Mr. Ford for the foregoing valuable information.

PATTERSON DU BOIS, *Curator.*

The Treasurer, Mr. Price, presented a report from the Michaux Committee, as follows:

TO THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY:

The Michaux Committee respectfully reports that at a meeting of the Committee, held on November 5, 1891, a letter was received from Dr. J. T. Rothrock, enclosing the following list of the subjects proposed for the Thirteenth Course of Lectures given under the auspices of the American Philosophical Society:

1. Vegetation of the Bahamas and Jamaica (illustrated).
2. Vegetation of the Bahamas and Jamaica (illustrated).
3. Physical Geography of the Bahamas and Jamaica (illustrated).
4. Some Problems for the Future, arising from Forest Growth, Surface Drainage and State Lines.
5. Forestry in Pennsylvania.
6. Relation of Forests to the Surface of the Earth.
7. Some Points in Practical Forestry.

It is expected that the Lectures will be delivered in the Hall of the Academy of Natural Sciences, which has been kindly tendered to him by the Academy for that purpose.

The Committee approved of the proposition and requests the Society to make an appropriation of $255 out of the income of the Michaux fund to meet the expenses of the Lectures.

In January, 1890, the Society made an appropriation of $200. out of the income of the Michaux fund, to Prof. Heilprin, towards the expenses of his expedition to Mexico and Yucatan, and your Committee has just received from him a paper entitled "Observations on the Flora of Northern Yucatan," in the nature of a report to it of his botanical work in that

country, which is herewith submitted as part of its report to be printed in the Proceedings of the Society.

The Committee submits the following resolutions, which it desires shall be passed by the Society.

Resolved, That the sum of two hundred and fifty-five dollars be appropriated out of the income of the Michaux fund towards the expenses of the Thirteenth Course of the "Michaux Forestry Lectures," by Dr. J. T. Rothrock.

Resolved, That the paper of Prof. Heilprin, entitled "Observations on the Flora of Yucatan," as well as the paper presented by Dr. Rothrock entitled "Some Observations on the Bahamas and Jamaica," in the nature of report to the Michaux Committee of his visit to these Islands in 1891, be printed in full in the Proceedings of the Society as part of the report of the Michaux Committee.

By order of the Board,

J. SERGEANT PRICE, *Secretary*.

The resolutions, as reported, were adopted by the Society.

Observations on the Flora of Northern Yucatan.

By Prof. Angelo Heilprin.

It is not a little singular that while the Mexican region as a whole has from the beginning of the century to the present day attracted the attention of botanists of all nations, and contributed more largely to the initial understanding of geographical botany than perhaps any other region of the globe, the Province or State of Yucatan should not have drawn to it a single botanist of note. Indeed, it is only in the last few years that any systematic effort has been made towards the determination of its flora, even the relationship of which has not yet been precisely ascertained. Grisebach, in his *Vegetation der Erde* (1884, Vol. ii, p. 301), dismisses the region with the bare statement that unfavorable climatic and physical conditions prevent luxuriance of vegetable development, and Hemsley, in his report upon the botany of Mexico and Central America, prepared for Godman and Salvin's *Biologia Centrali-Americana* (*Botany*, iv, p. 151, 1888), merely asserts our ignorance in the following words: "Before concluding this part, we may add that little is known of the details of the botany of Yucatan, except that it is very poor and scanty, and largely composed of plants that still bear long droughts without injury. The poverty of the flora is ascribed to the fact that the copious rains rapidly filter away through the porous limestone substratum." Drude, in his *Handbuch der Pflanzengeographie* (1890), ignores the region entirely. In view of this very limited knowledge of the flora of a country so interesting

as is Yucatan, I venture to submit a few general observations which were hastily picked up during a field reconnaissance made in the early part of 1890 (late February and March), principally in the interests of geological and zoölogical research. The collection of plants, which serves as a basis for some of the determinations referred to in this paper, was made by Mr. Witmer Stone, one of my associates in exploration, to whom I am indebted for notes and remarks on distribution, etc. I desire in this place also to acknowledge my indebtedness for various favors to D. Emilio MacKinney, of Merida, Yucatan, the author of the now progressing *Nuevo Judio*,* who has kindly assisted me in the determination of species not in flower, and of which specimens could not readily be obtained for our collections, and also furnished the local or Maya names.

Perhaps the traveler's first surprise on landing in Yucatan is that his eyes do not immediately fall upon a line of lofty primeval forest; secondly, he may be distressed by the utter barrenness which at times distinguishes much of the region that is covered by the bush or "jungle." This is the condition throughout much of the dry season when the trees and bushes, instead of being buried in dense and brilliant verdure, are as bare as though they had just passed through the tail end of one of our northern winters. The more striking does this condition appear when it is recollected that the region under consideration is well within the tropics, but little elevated above the level of the sea, and seemingly well fitted for the development of a rich and luxuriant flora. In the region first visited by us—the flat limestone tract included between the seaboard and the capital city—the vegetation is monotonous to a high degree. There is little of that variety of form which we are accustomed to associate with the vegetation of the south—little or nothing of the life which astonishes by its exuberance. By far the greater number of the arboreal elements of the scrub—for it is more nearly scrub than either jungle or forest—belong to the group of the Leguminosæ, among which the *yaxhabin*† (a species of Cassia) and the dog-acacia or *subinché* (*Acacia cornigera*), with their abatis of thorns, stand out as prominent members. Beyond the presence here and there of one or more species of cactus (*Cereus Peruvianus*, *C. flagelliformis*, *Cactus opuntia*) and the vision of distant cocoa-palms and oranges, there is little to remind the stranger from the north that he is not traveling in his own country. There are no large foresters swinging garlands of evergreens to the breeze, no canopy of flowers to waft perfume to the air. All about are tree-like bushes, fifteen to twenty-five feet in height, thin and so spare in their foliage as to permit of but indifferent shade, and most of them stocked with a wonderful armor of hooks and thorns. There are few flowers on the interground, and what appear on the branches above are almost wholly of a yellow color—the flowers of the Cassia and of the numer-

* *El Nuevo Judio: Apuntes que serviran para la formacion de La Flora Yucateca.* Merida, 1889.

† Pronounced with the German pronunciation of the vowels, *yashabin*. The x which appears in many of the Maya or Yucatecan words, as in Uxmal, has the sound of *sh*.

ous associated Acacias. These may be taken to represent the white blossoms of our cherry and dogwood. Here and there the eye catches a glimpse of a solitary screw-pine, the ɔipil* of the Mayas (*Pandanus candelabrum*), a plant which seems to have pretty firmly engrafted itself upon the Yucatan flora.

Withal that is lacking to indicate a tropical flora there is equally little that is really distinctive of the northern woods; there are no oaks, maples, beeches, poplars, junipers, cedars or pines. Excepting the Acacias we failed to detect a single genus of northern forest trees.† Yet the total impression produced by the vegetation was one immediately suggestive of the north, and not of a flora intermediate in character between that of the north and that of the south. The largely denuded condition of the trees undoubtedly conduced towards this impression.

This is the picture of the limestone flats between Progreso and Merida, and of much of the region lying to the east, south and west of the capital city; it is the picture as we found it in the dry season, in the month of March, before nature had yet begun to respond to those refreshing influences which are the offering of the rainy season.‡ It was the tropical winter. But even at this season of the year there were pieces of landscape that were fragrant in their verdure. Wherever the hand of man had transformed the native scrub into the fertile, but ever dreary and monotonous, henequen country, with its countless aloes (*Agave rigida?* var. *A. Sisalana*) planted in avenues of geometrical precision, the eye is sure to rest upon a number of scattered garden spots. They are the groves of the haciendas, and it is difficult to conceive of anything more brilliant or refreshing than these oases in what might be termed a fertile desert. The dense masses of foliage of the orange, *ramon* (*Brossimum alicastrum*), and one or more species of Ficus (*F. longifolia*), with their deepest tints of green, and the overarching plumes of the cocoanut, offer a sharp contrast to the bleak expanse of henequen, and a picture of loveliness not soon to be forgotten.

Along the roadways and in the gardens of Merida numerous examples of the true arboreal vegetation of the tropics are to be met with. Conspicuous among these are the silk-cotton tree (*Bombax ceiba*) and the *bonete* or *kumchê* (*Jacaratia Mexicana*), both of which assume the stately proportions of forest trees. At the time of our visit they were already in full fruit, although they as yet showed scarcely a vestige of leaf. This peculiarity, so novel to the stranger, was also true of most of the larger trees, such as the sapote (*Sapota achras*), pochote (*Eriodendron anfractuosum*), the so-called native cedar or cedro (*Cedrela odorata*), etc. The

* The Maya Ɔ, or reversed C, is pronounced as a short lingual tz.

† So many of the bushes and trees being destitute of leaf, and therefore largely unrecognizable, it is possible that more of the temperate forms are actually represented than appeared to us to be the case.

‡ Returning to Progreso in the early part of June, I found that the vegetation, although considerably advanced, was still backward as compared with that of the eastern lowland plains of major Mexico, and in every way much less luxuriant.

plum or siruela (*Spondias*) was also bearing heavily, but it still bore traces of flowering. One of the most ornamental trees of the roadside is the "southern pine" or *Casuarina*, which also thrives extensively in the open and windy sand spots of Progreso.

The tree which at the time of our visit gave the tone of luxuriance to the vegetation was the ramon (*Brosimum alicastrum*), the dense masses of whose foliage are a refreshing object in the street scenery of almost every town in northern Yucatan. It is extensively cultivated for horse and mule fodder, and thus frequently appears for cause stripped of its leaves for a height of thirty to forty feet. It then shows to advantage the brilliant contrast between its pale gray, almost white, trunk and the dark green of its crown. Plants with showy flowers were not numerous, and the flowers where occurring were not specially remarkable either for beauty or for fragrance. There were, however, one or two notable exceptions, which went far to redeem the reputation of the tropics. One of these was the tree known in the Maya language as *xkuiché*, which comprises the two species familiar to botanists as *Pachira alba* and *P. fastuosa*. Both forms were completely naked, except for the large tufts of red and white blossoms which were scattered over the branches. The tree is a favorite with the natives, and we met with it at numerous places along the open roadside; but its true home is the village garden. Scarcely less attractive in its display of flowers is the siricote (*Cordia Sebestana*), with its large and brilliant cups of scarlet, the abiding place of several species of humming-bird.

The picture of Merida and its surroundings, so far as the vegetation is concerned, is also the picture of much of the outlying region where settlements have effected a lodgment. The approach to every village is heralded by a growth of sabal or cocoanut, the former of which attains the dimensions approximately of the Florida palmetto, rising in graceful shafts sixty to eighty feet in height. Its most picturesque garb is seen when the tree is enclosed by the trunk and cable masses of the *copó* (*Ficus rubiginosa*), whose close embrace makes it appear as though the same trunk and roots were nourishing and supporting the lives of two very distinct organisms. The fig, of later growth, had wrapped its massive descending roots about the shaft of the palm, and in such a manner as to leave little or nothing of its fellow visible except the tufts of leaves. Manifestly the pseudo-parasite had started life from above, possibly from seeds deposited by a bird, gathering sustenance from the atmosphere and its contained impurities. I could find neither here nor in Mexico proper, where I subsequently had frequent opportunity of observing this growth, evidence of strangulation of the host. Inasmuch as the trunk of the palmetto does not materially increase in bulk after it first rises from the ground, I doubt much if this closing around causes any real injury to the plant attacked, contrary to the general belief of the natives. The finest specimens of the cocoa-palm were met with by us at a locality on the north coast known as the Serrito, a few miles to the east of the Puerto de Ɔilam. The tree does not in this place grow to any great height, perhaps forty to fifty feet, but it appears

in full vigor, and many of the trees of the large grove, which is here bathed by the ocean breezes, were laden with fruits. Compared with the cocoa-palms which I subsequently met with in the Mexican region west and northwest of Vera Cruz, these appeared to be of a much more healthy type, and altogether their general aspect was much fresher. In the same region is also found the dwarf cocoanut (*Cocos coyol*).

In the mountain region forty to sixty miles south of Merida, or beyond Ticul, certain new elements are introduced into the vegetation, which impart to it a somewhat distinctive character; but, broadly speaking, the flora is still that of the northern limestone flats, with its acacias as the dominating feature. At several points on the northern flank of the Sierra, as between the hacienda of San Juan and Uxmal, and again between Ticul and the hacienda of Tabi, there are extensive growths of the red gum, the *chakah* of the Mayas (*Bursera gummifera*), the tree which yields much of the chewing gum of commerce. Like most of the larger foresters it was destitute of leaves, and in its peculiarly dichotomizing branches and copper-colored trunk, it could not fail to attract the attention of the traveler. The tree grows to a height of some forty to sixty feet, and in such close association as to form woods of its own. I met with it in considerable abundance along the line connecting Vera Cruz and Jalapa, not far from the village of San Juan. Along the roadways and in the thinner jungle the lesser pineapple or piñuela (*Bromelia pinguin*) was very abundant, its long and rigid saw-like leaves, tipped with bright crimson, forming an effective foreground to the more delicate types of vegetation beyond. Especially beautiful is the effect produced by these plants at the approaches to the famous ruins of Uxmal; great tufted masses, five to seven feet in height, line the roadway on either side—a natural stockade alike impassable to man and beast.

Only along a comparatively short stretch of roadway between Izamal and Tunkas, on the Camino Real to Valladolid, did we meet with that phase of vegetable development which the mind popularly associates with a southern flora—a flora which is tropically luxuriant, and where luxuriance is dependent not upon the special growth of plants of a single order, but upon an assortment of largely heterogeneous elements. The beginnings of such a vegetation we found a few miles to the southeast of Sitilpech. The limestone has here undergone deep decay, liberating a rich deposit of red earth, which has attracted a profuse and varied flora. The trees are very much larger than we had heretofore seen in the bush and some of them almost noble in their proportions. Manifestly they are the remains of a forest which was at one time far more majestic than it is to-day, and which dates its primal destruction probably to the period of the early colonization of the country by the Spaniards. The overarching boughs, decked with a profusion of dog-jessamine (*Tabernæmontana amygdalifolia*), orchids and air plants, especially the latter, help to form a dainty bit of road scenery which it would be difficult to match. Of the orchids, the *Cattleya* was especially abundant, forming by its large bunches great unsightly scars in the axils of the forest trees. We col-

lected also a number of *Oncidia*, etc. The epiphytes were mainly Tillandsias or Bromelias, which in places literally covered some of the large foresters, especially the *pich* (*Inga xilocarpa*). Among other components of the vegetation are the Spanish bayonet (*Yucca*) and Fourcroya, rising thirty to forty feet, and several species of cactus (*Cereus grandiflora*, *C. flagelliformis*, *Melocactus*). The first of these, the far-famed night-blooming Cereus, occurs in great sprawling masses, dependent from the lower branches of the bush. Here and there it is closely associated with the organ or giant cactus (*Cereus Peruviana*) and with other species to form dense and impenetrable thickets. Many of the plants were in flower at the time of our visit.

Three large cenotes, or, more properly, aguadas, those of Shkashek and Balantun, open up within a short distance of one another on this road, and their deep basins are largely encircled by a luxuriant growth of forest. Over the surface of two of these, great lily pads had encroached upon the water, recalling a picture from our own far north. In a second well a brake or cane, together with the *puh* (*Pandanus utilis*), had largely usurped the place of the lily. I observed here also a number of calabash bushes or trees (*Crescentia cujete*).

On the northern coast of the peninsula, adjoining the luxuriant *sapotales* of the Serrito, is a vast mangrove maze. Unlike the mangroves of the Southern United States, such as I had observed in profuse development on the western coast of Florida, or of Bermuda, the Yucatan mangrove is a noble forester, rising a hundred feet or more in height. The great air-shoots or roots descend from an elevation of fifty to seventy-five feet, and in their massiveness recall the giant cables of some of the *Ficaceæ*. In its general aspect the mangrove forest is most impressive—a wilderness of roots, stems and foliage, into which but little sunlight penetrates.

Attention has already been directed to the *scanty* character of the Yucatan sylva; this is, indeed, the nature of the "jungle," which is referred to by nearly all travelers since the days of Stephens and which encompasses the sites of many of the larger ruins of the interior. The true forest jungle, such as is to be met with in the State of Tabasco or in the low Mexican region west of the Gulf, is wanting over the greater part of the extensive limestone plain of the north, nor does it show itself in the mountain tracts either. This condition has led botanists to assume that the northern half of the peninsula was climatically and physically unsuited to the development of the profuse and healthy vegetation which elsewhere distinguishes tropical Spanish America. Indeed, Grisebach goes so far as to assume that the deficiency of forms is mainly due to an absence of rainfall, which is, however, as well marked in Yucatan as it is in most non-mountainous tropical countries. The fallacy of this view has already been pointed out by Woeikof.* The scraps of luxuriant growth that appear here and there, taken in conjunction with the giant dimensions of some of the scattered foresters, seem to me to point rather to

* *Reise durch Yukatan und die südöstlichen Provinzen von Mexiko*, 1874. Petermann's *Mittheilungen*, 1879, p. 202.

favorable than to unfavorable conditions and to an explanation of the existing sparseness of the vegetation which has no connection with climatic or physical influences. I think it all but certain that an extensive forest at one time covered the land, and that successive devastations in one form or another have brought the surface to the condition in which we now find it. That the Spaniards here, as in Mexico proper, caused wanton destruction of the native forests is positive; but how often the destruction has been continued since the period of the conquest has not yet been determined.

The following brief notes on some of the plants observed by us may serve in a measure to elucidate the vegetation of northern Yucatan; most of the determinations have been made by Mr. MacKinney, who has also supplied the Maya names (the second name which occasionally appears in parentheses is the one in common use).

Cassia sp.? (*Yaxhabin*).—Tree, 15-20 feet, very abundant in the open scrub between the seaboard and Merida. Flowers bright yellow.

Acacia cornigera (*Subinché*).—Very abundant in the bush.

Acacia odoratissima? (*Baalché*).

Inga xilocarpa (*Pich*).—One of the largest of the roadside trees, 70–100 feet or more in height. This tree appears to be specially selected for decoration by the Tillandsia.

Bombax ceiba (*Yaxché*).—The silk-cotton tree is one of the giants of the Yucatan flora, of which it constitutes one of the distinctive features; 70-100 feet; very abundant. Specially noble examples of this tree, one of them measuring not less than eight feet in diameter, are found in the region about Ticul. Destitute of leaf at the time of our visit, but bearing an ample supply of pods.

Eriodendron anfractuosum (*Pochote*).—An abundant tree, mostly of smaller size than the ceiba; flowering.

Pachira alba, Pachira fastuosa (*Xcuyché—Amapola*).—Cultivated as ornamental trees; 15–25 feet; flowering, but devoid of leaves.

Brossimum alicastrum (*Ox—Ramon*).—Very abundant in all the village gardens; cultivated for fodder. Tree, 60–80 feet.

Ficus grandifolia (*Akúm*).—Large and abundant tree.

Ficus rubiginosa (*Copó*).—Very abundant as a pseudo-parasite on Sabal.

Ficus laurifolia —Shade tree in the park of Merida.

Jacaratia Mexicana (*Kumché—Bonete*).—Large and abundant tree—in fruit. The conspicuous triangular fruit is prepared in a variety of ways as an article of food.

Carica papaya (*Put—Papaya*).—The papaw; very abundant in gardens.

Bursera gummifera (*Chacah*).—Tree (destitute of leaf at the time of our visit) very abundant in the hill region south of Ticul; 50–60 feet.

Spondias lutea (*Abal—Xkinim-hobo—Siruela*).—One of the forms of Yucatan plum; extensively cultivated.

Spondias microcarpa (*Aac-abal*).

Spondias rubra (*Xkis-abal*).

Cordia Sebestana (*Kopté—Siricote*).—Abundant in gardens.

Cedrela odorata (*Kulché*).—Abundant in gardens in Merida and in nearly all villages.

Casuarina.—Abundant in gardens and in open places; 30–60 feet.

Anona squamosa (*Ꝺalmui—Saramayo*).—The custard apple.

Anona muricata (*Guanáoano*).

Anona glabra (*Op*).

Sapote achras.—Much cultivated for its delicious fruit; tree 50–80 feet.

Lucuma mamosa (*Chacalhas*).—The mamey.

Mamea Americana.—The San Domingo mamey; extensively cultivated.

Persea gratissima (*On—Aguacate*).—Alligator-pear.

Plumeria alba (*Nicté—Flor de Mayo*).—Cultivated for its beautiful and highly aromatic flowers.

Tabernæmontana amygdalifolia (*Uaupek—Jazmin de perro*).—Dog-jessamine. Very abundant along some of the roadways, as on the Camino Real between Izamal and Tekantó; flowering.

Crescentia cujete (*Luch—Jicara*).—Calabash tree; observed at the aguada of Shkashek.

Tecoma equinoctialis (*Sac-ak—Bejuco de Chiquiuite*).

Cucurbita pepo (*Kúm—Calabassa*).—Calabash.

Rhizophora mangle (*Tapché*).—Forming extensive forests on the north shore, east of the Puerto de Dilam.

Cereus Peruvianus (*Nun—Organo*).—The organ cactus, forming dense and almost impenetrable thickets; 20–30 feet. Very abundant near the hacienda of Tabi, southeast of Ticul. A smaller species is known as Nuutsutsui.

Cereus grandiflora (*Pitaya*).—Abundant in the thickets, where its great depending masses impede penetration.

Cereus flagelliformis (*Canchoh*).—Common on rocks.

Cereus lanatus (*Tsacám*).

Cactus opuntia (*Pakám*).—The common nopal.

Melocactus communis (*Polxnúk—Bisnaga*).—Abundant in places.

Bromelia pinguin (*Chom—Piñuela*).—Abundant, and forming dense thickets.

Musa sapientia (*Sac-haas*).—The common banana; extensively cultivated.

Musa paradisiaca (*Box-haas*).—Plantain; also common.

Cocos nucifera.—Abundantly cultivated, and forming along the northern shore beautiful groves; 50–70 feet.

Cocos coyol.—Dwarf cocoanut.

Sabal Mexicana (*Bayal-xaan*).—I am not certain that this is the common species of palmetto of Yucatan; the tree attains a height of some 70–80 feet.

Thrinax otomale (*Bon-xaan*).

Thrinax parvifolia (also *Bayal-xaan?*).

Pandanus candelabrum (*Cipil*).—Stray specimens appearing here and there in the bush, between Progreso and Merida.

Pandanus utilis (*Puh*).—In the waters of the cenote of Balantun.

Some Observations on the Bahamas and Jamaica.

By Dr. J. T. Rothrock.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 6, 1891, as part of the Report of the Michaux Committee.)

The American Philosophical Society having last season set apart from the Michaux legacy the sum of three hundred dollars towards defraying the expenses of my West Indian exploring and collecting trip, I desire to offer the following:

The object of the appropriation was the collecting of photographs and information which could be utilized in the preparation and delivery of the annual lectures, popularly known as "The Michaux Forestry Course."

Towards accomplishing this, the islands of New Providence, Eleuthera, San Salvador, Watling and Inagua, all of the Bahama group, were visited, as well also as Jamaica and its lesser political dependency, the Grand Cayman, which is situated one hundred and ninety nautical miles, nearly W.N.W., from the western end of Jamaica.

As the time allowed for my entire trip was but three months, it is evident that no prolonged stay could be made in any one place. We devoted by far the greater portion of our time to the island of Jamaica, and found everywhere, but especially on its greatest altitudes of 7000 feet, ample returns for our search.

In all, about one hundred and fifty good negatives were obtained. As duplicates were usually made, it is fair to say there are about seventy-five satisfactory illustrations of trees, physical geography and topography of the islands visited.

How rich a field the island of Jamaica offers may readily be inferred from the following facts:

1. If reduced to a square, the island would be about sixty-five miles long by as many wide.
2. Its population is only about 600,000 souls.
3. Only twenty-five per cent. of its area is under cultivation.
4. The agricultural methods are very primitive and fertilizers are sparingly used.
5. Notwithstanding these facts, this small area, after retaining enough for home uses, sends into the markets of the world nearly \$9,000,000 worth of products each year. These are mainly from the vegetable kingdom.

It is well, also, to call attention to the fact that, of these exports, probably about fifty per cent. are shipped to the United States as against thirty-seven per cent. to Great Britain. Of fruit alone, we received in 1889 not less than \$1,580,000 worth, as rated by the exports there. Of course, its value here was vastly greater. There has been during the past five years a *decided increase* in the trade with the United States, and *some also* with Canada.

as is Yucatan, I venture to submit a few general observations which were hastily picked up during a field reconnaissance made in the early part of 1890 (late February and March), principally in the interests of geological and zoölogical research. The collection of plants, which serves as a basis for some of the determinations referred to in this paper, was made by Mr. Witmer Stone, one of my associates in exploration, to whom I am indebted for notes and remarks on distribution, etc. I desire in this place also to acknowledge my indebtedness for various favors to D. Emilio MacKinney, of Merida, Yucatan, the author of the now progressing *Nuevo Judio*,* who has kindly assisted me in the determination of species not in flower, and of which specimens could not readily be obtained for our collections, and also furnished the local or Maya names.

Perhaps the traveler's first surprise on landing in Yucatan is that his eyes do not immediately fall upon a line of lofty primeval forest; secondly, he may be distressed by the utter barrenness which at times distinguishes much of the region that is covered by the bush or "jungle." This is the condition throughout much of the dry season when the trees and bushes, instead of being buried in dense and brilliant verdure, are as bare as though they had just passed through the tail end of one of our northern winters. The more striking does this condition appear when it is recollected that the region under consideration is well within the tropics, but little elevated above the level of the sea, and seemingly well fitted for the development of a rich and luxuriant flora. In the region first visited by us—the flat limestone tract included between the seaboard and the capital city—the vegetation is monotonous to a high degree. There is little of that variety of form which we are accustomed to associate with the vegetation of the south—little or nothing of the life which astonishes by its exuberance. By far the greater number of the arboreal elements of the scrub—for it is more nearly scrub than either jungle or forest—belong to the group of the Leguminosæ, among which the *yaxhabin*† (a species of Cassia) and the dog-acacia or *subinché* (*Acacia cornigera*), with their abatis of thorns, stand out as prominent members. Beyond the presence here and there of one or more species of cactus (*Cereus Peruvianus*, *C. flagelliformis*, *Cactus opuntia*) and the vision of distant cocoa-palms and oranges, there is little to remind the stranger from the north that he is not traveling in his own country. There are no large foresters swinging garlands of evergreens to the breeze, no canopy of flowers to waft perfume to the air. All about are tree-like bushes, fifteen to twenty-five feet in height, thin and so spare in their foliage as to permit of but indifferent shade, and most of them stocked with a wonderful armor of hooks and thorns. There are few flowers on the interground, and what appear on the branches above are almost wholly of a yellow color—the flowers of the Cassia and of the numer-

* *El Nuevo Judio: Apuntes que servirian para la formacion de La Flora Yucateca.* Merida, 1889.

† Pronounced with the German pronunciation of the vowels, *yashabin*. The x which appears in many of the Maya or Yucatecan words, as in Uxmal, has the sound of *sh*.

ous associated Acacias. These may be taken to represent the white blossoms of our cherry and dogwood. Here and there the eye catches a glimpse of a solitary screw-pine, the ɔipil* of the Mayas (*Pandanus candelabrum*), a plant which seems to have pretty firmly engrafted itself upon the Yucatan flora.

Withal that is lacking to indicate a tropical flora there is equally little that is really distinctive of the northern woods; there are no oaks, maples, beeches, poplars, junipers, cedars or pines. Excepting the Acacias we failed to detect a single genus of northern forest trees.† Yet the total impression produced by the vegetation was one immediately suggestive of the north, and not of a flora intermediate in character between that of the north and that of the south. The largely denuded condition of the trees undoubtedly conduced towards this impression.

This is the picture of the limestone flats between Progreso and Merida, and of much of the region lying to the east, south and west of the capital city; it is the picture as we found it in the dry season, in the month of March, before nature had yet begun to respond to those refreshing influences which are the offering of the rainy season.‡ It was the tropical winter. But even at this season of the year there were pieces of landscape that were fragrant in their verdure. Wherever the hand of man had transformed the native scrub into the fertile, but ever dreary and monotonous, hennequen country, with its countless aloes (*Agave rigida?* var. *A. Sisalana*) planted in avenues of geometrical precision, the eye is sure to rest upon a number of scattered garden spots. They are the groves of the haciendas, and it is difficult to conceive of anything more brilliant or refreshing than these oases in what might be termed a fertile desert. The dense masses of foliage of the orange, *ramon* (*Brossimum alicastrum*), and one or more species of Ficus (*F. longifolia*), with their deepest tints of green, and the overarching plumes of the cocoanut, offer a sharp contrast to the bleak expanse of hennequen, and a picture of loveliness not soon to be forgotten.

Along the roadways and in the gardens of Merida numerous examples of the true arboreal vegetation of the tropics are to be met with. Conspicuous among these are the silk-cotton tree (*Bombax ceiba*) and the *bonete* or *kumché* (*Jacaratia Mexicana*), both of which assume the stately proportions of forest trees. At the time of our visit they were already in full fruit, although they as yet showed scarcely a vestige of leaf. This peculiarity, so novel to the stranger, was also true of most of the larger trees, such as the sapote (*Sapota achras*), pochote (*Eriodendron anfractuosum*), the so-called native cedar or cedro (*Cedrela odorata*), etc. The

* The Maya ɔ, or reversed C, is pronounced as a short lingual tz.

† So many of the bushes and trees being destitute of leaf, and therefore largely unrecognizable, it is possible that more of the temperate forms are actually represented than appeared to us to be the case.

‡ Returning to Progreso in the early part of June, I found that the vegetation, although considerably advanced, was still backward as compared with that of the eastern lowland plains of major Mexico, and in every way much less luxuriant.

The practical bearing of this is not hard to see from a sanitary standpoint. The high ground on the western end of Jamaica is the climate most suitable for the invalid. The beautiful little town of Lucea, if it possessed a large, well kept hotel, would be an ideal winter resort for our northern invalids.

Whether considered from the standpoint of climate, scenery or productiveness, Lucea could be made a more desirable winter resort than the Bahamas. Indeed, I am so strongly impressed by the possibilities of Northwestern Jamaica for the invalids of the future that I cannot refrain from making these statements as positive as I have.

There is one more factor to be considered in the climate of Lucea. It is that the trade winds from the N.E. tend, on striking the northern coast of Jamaica, to be deflected into E.N.E. winds. This would place Lucea somewhat under the protection of the parishes to the east of it; so far, at least, as the rainfall is concerned.

We lay in the harbor of Port Morant, on the southern side of Jamaica, whilst a furious north wind was blowing on the northern side of Jamaica and deluging the region near Port Antonio with the rainfall. Yet we received a very moderate share of the rain, which was drained from the clouds by the mountains north of us.

Dr. Morris read a note from Mr. Patterson, Trustee under the will of the late Franklin Peale, suggesting the removal of the stone-age collection of relics, and moved that the Curators be instructed and authorized to withdraw from the custody of the Academy of Natural Sciences the Peale stone-age collections.

A discussion ensued, in which Dr. Brinton, Dr. Morris, Dr. Cope, Mr. Dudley, Mr. Martindale and Mr. Du Bois took part.

The President stated the manner in which the Society had become the owner of the collection referred to.

On motion of Mr. Dudley, the further consideration of the whole matter was postponed until the next regular meeting of the Society, and the Curators were requested in the meantime to examine into the facts and report upon the same.

At the call of deferred business, the report from the Committee of which Prof. E. D. Cope was Chairman, postponed from May 1, 1891, was taken up and considered.

Prof. Cope requested that the same might be postponed until next meeting, which, on motion, was agreed to.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

Stated Meeting, November 20, 1891.

Present, 26 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

On motion of Mr. Dudley, it was

Resolved, nem. con., That the ordinary business of the Society should be suspended, and that such matters as were set for this evening should be postponed until the next regular meeting, and that the only business that should be attended to to-night, should be the reading of a paper by Mr. Henry C. Baird, on "Carey and Two of His Recent Critics—Bœhm-Bawerk and Marshall," and the presentation of the portrait of Mrs. Seiler.

Mr. Henry Carey Baird read a paper on "Carey and His Recent Critics."

Mr. Rosengarten read the following letter:

FREDERICK FRALEY, ESQ.,

President American Philosophical Society.

DEAR SIR:—Some of the friends of the late Mrs. Emma Seiler, including many of her pupils, desire to present to the Philosophical Society, of which Mrs. Seiler was a member, a marble relief portrait of that lady, to be placed in your Hall, as a memorial of her scientific labors and of her success in elevating musical education, and of her contributions to a better knowledge of the voice in speaking and singing. You are respectfully asked to request the Philosophical Society at its next meeting to accept this gift, and to fix a time when it can be presented, and a memoir of Mrs. Seiler, be read, to be preserved and printed in the record of the Transactions of the Society.

We are very respectfully, etc.,

Mrs. Caspar Wister,
Mrs. Brinton Coxe,
Miss Rosengarten,
Miss Bradford,
Miss Maria Hopper,
Mrs. Messchert,
Miss Messchert,
Miss Bennett,
Miss Eliza B. Chase,
Mrs. Agnes G. E. Shipley,
Mr. William Ellis Scull,
Mr. M. H. Messchert,
Mr. Charles Platt,
Mrs. S. I. Lesley,
Mrs. Marriott C. Smythe,
Miss Maria Moss,
Mrs. John W. Field,
Miss Ella C. White,
Miss Mary A. Burnham,
Miss Kate S. Gillespie,
Miss B. M. Randolph,
Mrs. George McClellan,
Rev. Dr. T. K. Conrad,
Mr. William Platt Pepper,
Mr. Edward H. Coates,
Mr. J. G. Rosengarten.

Philadelphia, November 4, 1891.

Mr. Rosengarten, presenting the portrait of Mrs. Seiler, spoke as follows:

MR. PRESIDENT :—At the last meeting, the American Philosophical Society agreed to accept a marble relief portrait of the late Madame Seiler, presented by a few of her friends and pupils. I now have the pleasure, on behalf of the subscribers, to present it to you and through you to the Society. Madame Seiler was a member of this Society, one of the six women who have thus far been enrolled on its list. The others were Princess Dashkoff, Mrs. Somerville, Mrs. Agassiz, Miss Maria Mitchell and Miss Helen Abbott. Her works on "The Voice in Singing" and "The Voice in Speaking" were not her only claims to this distinction. In Germany, her native country, Madame Seiler was a pupil of the famous teachers of the University of Berlin, and it is to her that is attributed the first use of the laryngoscope in studying the organs of the throat, while her discovery and description of some of the parts of the throat were of great value. She brought letters of introduction from well-known German savans to the late Dr. George B. Wood, for many years President of this Society, and through him was enabled to make the acquaintance of the Rev. Dr. Furness, among its oldest members. This venerable member of the Philosophical Society helped her in all of her literary work, and was her kind and steadfast friend through all her life; his last act of kindness was officiating at her funeral, when his tender sympathy and earnest words assuaged the grief of her family and her friends. But no patronage and no help would have availed without the talent, energy and ability which won for Madame Seiler hosts of friends here. Her success was shown in the establishment of a singing academy, where many pupils were trained in her methods, and her little leisure was spent in scientific and literary work. Much still remains in manuscript, but her printed books have been freely used and commended by the later writers on the subjects specially her own. As a mark of respect and affection, her friends and pupils have secured this admirable marble relief portrait. It is the work of Mr. Henry K. Bush Brown, a young American artist, and it is now presented to the Philosophical Society, with the request that it may find a suitable place on the walls of its hall, where there are portraits and busts of many of the distinguished men who have been members. What Madame Seiler did to entitle her to this honor will be set forth in detail in a biographical sketch to be read this evening, and that memoir will no doubt be preserved in the growing list of necrological notices in the printed papers of the Society. On behalf of the subscribers this marble relief portrait is presented to the Society as an expression of the affection and admiration felt for Madame Seiler in her lifetime and in the hope of thus perpetuating her name and memory as those of a woman who did much for a scientific knowledge of music and whose general culture, broad sympathies and earnest labors endeared her to all who knew her. Coming to this city almost an entire stranger—not even a master of

the language spoken here—it was the kindness shown to her by members of the Philosophical Society that enabled her to find employment and to show her mastery of her art and to carry on her scientific work and to write her books. It is eminently fitting, therefore, that this memorial portrait should find its final resting place on the walls of your hall, and that her name and services should be perpetuated in your records. I now, in the name and on behalf of the subscribers, hand over to you and through you to the keeping of the Society, the portrait of Madame Seiler, a member of the Society, a woman of many virtues and talents and beloved by a large circle of friends, who have joined in thus testifying their sense of the honor conferred on her by this Society and of her eminent right to it.

The President accepted the portrait in a few appropriate remarks.

Mrs. J. P. Lesley then read the following sketch of Madame Seiler:

Mrs. Emma Seiler was born on the 23d of February, 1821, at Wurtzberg, in the kingdom of Bavaria. Her maiden name was Diruff, and her father was court physician to Ludwig, King of Bavaria, and also Surgeon-General to the kingdom. Emma Diruff had two brothers and two sisters. One of her sisters afterwards married Dr. Canstadt, a celebrated physician and professor at Jena, who also started a medical journal, which is still in existence. Her other sister married Dr. Demme, professor of surgery at Berne, and brother of a distinguished Lutheran clergyman of that name, formerly settled in Philadelphia.

The children of Dr. Diruff were on familiar terms with the young princes and princesses at the court of King Ludwig, and occasionally shared their lessons with the same tutors and professors, and Emma grew up in close intimacy and friendship with the princesses, and with the young Maximilian, and Otto, King of Greece. She lived in the atmosphere of court life, was early presented, and the king and queen valued highly their intercourse with the family of the court physician. To our American ideas these are trifles, but unless we understand all the early influences of a young life, we cannot realize what one must have to overcome in later years when living among people to whom all such distinctions are purely artificial.

Her early youth was a very happy one, devoted to her education, in the heart of a family circle of sufficient wealth to be free from serious anxieties and cares, and their home in the midst of beautiful scenery, for which she had all her life a deep appreciation.

In the year 1841 Emma Diruff was married to Dr. Seiler, a young physician whose family like her own was one of the oldest and most aristocratic in Bavaria. The estate of her husband, to which she at once removed with him, was situated in Langenthal in Switzerland, not far from

Berne. She was then twenty years old. For some years she lived in outward comfort, not called on for serious exertions beyond the cares for her children and the guidance of her family affairs. But in 1846 some speculations in which her husband had engaged failed; all his property except the estate on which they lived was lost, and from this time forth she lived a life of deep and constant anxiety, and under the necessity for unremitting exertion. They both thought that their home on the estate might be made remunerative by turning it into a private asylum for insane patients, and into this work Mrs. Seiler threw herself with the energy and ardor of her nature, making herself the sympathetic friend of those whose mental maladies were of the milder type, and having great influence over the violent. At one time, after watching successfully for some months a case of suicidal mania, the patient escaped her and was found to have hung herself. Mrs. Seiler, after an hour of heroic effort, succeeded in restoring the life that was apparently extinct. At another time, she was badly injured by lifting an insane woman, and carried that injury and the suffering it occasioned to her dying day. But she was never one to dwell upon personal sorrows and pains, or talk about them; nor could she help away her griefs by personal resentment, a poor way for any of us to be helped. But she went on courageously with the work appointed to her, only finding her eyes and her heart more open and sympathetic with her sufferers, and her hands more active.

In the year 1847 a famine came upon Switzerland, not due to failure of crops, but to political causes. The French invaded Switzerland in preparation for the Franco-Austrian War, blockaded all the outlets, and the price of provisions became so high that the very poor had no means to supply their wants. At Langenthal and in many other places, they fell dead in the streets from starvation. Mrs. Seiler's heart ached well-nigh to bursting with the miseries she saw around her—the dead and dying in the streets, the wretchedness of those who survived. Night and day she pondered on their distresses and thought over plans for their relief. But all her plans required money and she had none. One night in her agony she prayed, "Oh, my God, send me power to help my poor dying people! Oh, my God, show me the way!" "I prayed all night upon my knees," she said, "and by daylight my mind was clear."

She rose early, and having attended to her family and her patients, she went to the clergyman of the village, to ask for his sympathy and approval. When she had finished an ardent appeal to him, he said to her in a deep and solemn tone which she was fond of imitating, "Read the Bible to those dying people." And when she said, "But they are starving to death; they must have food," he only repeated mechanically, "Read the Bible to those dying people, every one." When she declined to do this, and rose impatiently to go, he said, in the same sepulchral tone, "When that great day comes when the Judge shall separate the sheep from the goats, where will *you* be?" "That does not concern me at all," said Mrs. Seiler, "whether I shall go with sheeps or goats. I was thinking of some-

thing very different. But you, sir, how shall it be with you in that day? Will you go to sheeps or goats?" There was no answer to this question, and she hurried away to carry out her vision of the night without the aid of the clergyman. "I walked to every comfortable house that I could reach on foot," she said, "and besought them to give me whatever they could spare in food or money." Her eloquence brought a generous response. Then she went through the wretched streets, and invited three hundred to come to her house the next day. She bought materials, and herself prepared large kettles of nourishing broth, and bought huge loaves of bread. Then she lodged and fed them through the day on her own premises. Many lives were saved by this timely aid, but this was but one part of Mrs. Seiler's midnight planning. As soon as the poor lives were enough restored for work she induced them to learn some little handicraft by which to help themselves. She herself understood all the beautiful methods of embroidery and exquisite darning and crocheting, and to these she added braiding of hats and baskets and mats, that she might teach them. The hands so awkward and unskillful at first, soon became expert under her instruction, and even very little children in the end did exquisite work. And now she had a real manufactory of salable articles. Then she sent to many rich persons at a greater distance to come and see. "I was a very handsome woman then" she said with naïve simplicity, "and I thought to myself, I will now make my beauty of some use. So I did send to all my courtiers [she meant admirers] to come and see me, and I made it very agreeable for them, and they did buy all my poor people's work, and that did give me much money, to take in and feed and teach more starving people, and then many young ladies of fine families came to me and said, 'Mrs. Seiler, we will learn all your arts, and then we will come and help you to teach the poor people;' and they did. And so the circle of blessing was extended."*

I cannot close this little history of one brief period of Mrs. Seiler's life without telling you that her methods in this time of her country's needs were so successful and far reaching that the Swiss government and afterwards the Swedish and Danish governments sent emissaries to see them; and so convinced were they of their goodness and practicability that they copied them in their own administration.

Her versatility and energy and physical strength were at this time very great, and her resources unfailing. During the whole period of the famine she had to plan carefully and keep the strictest account of expenses and also arrange new plans to replenish an ever-lessening treasury. So, while teaching the handicrafts, she set about discovering the fine natural voices which she knew must exist among the poor peasants who flocked daily to her estate. Having found fifty or more capable of it, she devoted

* Mrs. Seiler's daughter writes me: "When I was in Germany, I made it a point to ask my mother's brother and sister as well as old friends about her youth, and all agreed that she was not only the handsomest girl in Wurtzburg, and called 'The Rose of Wurtzburg,' but was also beloved by all who knew her."

herself with ardor to the training of a band of choristers, who in time sang the most beautiful music all over the neighborhood ; she gave lovely concerts, and the proceeds enabled her to carry on her pious charity a much longer time.

Much of all this I learned from her own lips, told so incidentally and naturally, one could see that she did not herself appreciate its admirable character. But it was strikingly confirmed to me by a lady from this city who with her husband traveled through that region only a few years ago. In the mountains she met a peasant whom she asked if he had ever known a Mrs. Emma Seiler who once lived there. His face brightened all over as he assured her that he remembered her well, and then he told with enthusiasm the story of her saving the lives of so many of his comrades and the good she had done in many ways to all the people.

Late in August of 1851, the home at Lagenthal was broken up, the private asylum came to an end, and Mrs. Seiler found it necessary to support herself and her children by her talent for music, and she left Switzerland never to return to it as a home.

She went first to Dresden, and there took lessons of Wiek, the father of Clara Schumann, with whom she became intimate. She supported herself and her children by giving piano lessons while she was cultivating her voice. But while in training there she lost her voice, a bitter disappointment to her, because she could earn much more by teaching vocal than instrumental music. She remained in Dresden three years, during which time her house was the rendezvous of the principal musical celebrities. She worked hard at her piano lessons, but she did not recover her voice. Then she went to her sister Mrs. Canstadt at Breslau and passed a year giving lessons, and then to Heidelberg. Here she found piano lessons poorly paid; every one wanted singing, and this inspired her to study with zeal the laws of vocal physiology, and the causes of the overstrain which had destroyed her own voice and that of so many others. Here at Heidelberg she became intimate with the two Bunsens, the chemist and the statesman, and also with Kirchoff, professor of physics. Bunsen the chemist and Kirchoff together discovered the spectroscope while she was there, which excited all her enthusiasm.

In December, 1856, she met Helmholtz, who was made professor extraordinary of music. He was then engaged in writing his great work on "Sensation in Sound," and went to Mrs. Seiler almost daily for several months for advice and for verification of his calculations by her experiments. After living in Heidelberg nearly six years she went in 1856 to Leipsic to study herself, and to give her children a musical education at the conservatory. Here she knew well Moschelles, Drysholk, and David the violinist, and also the professor of physiology Ernest Heinrich Weber, and with his aid she studied the anatomy and physiology of the voice and published her first book "Old and New in the Art of Singing," which created a profound sensation in musical circles. From Leipsic she went to Berlin. By the care and training she had given herself after she

had discovered the cause of her trouble she recovered her voice, and was now once more able to give lessons in singing. She had the first laryngoscope, invented by Manuel Garcia, constructed after her own directions, and by it she discovered the verification of her theories with regard to the head notes of the female voice. In Berlin too she found herself in a delightful society, meeting often Du Bois Reymond, the egyptologist Lepsius and many other distinguished companions.

In 1866, finding her means of earning a livelihood almost at an end through the straightened means of the German people during the war, which did not permit many to indulge in the luxury of music, she left Germany and came to Philadelphia. Every movement of her life seems to have been made under the stress of stern necessity. She loved a permanent home, but she accepted these changes, the parting from old friends, the barriers of language, the unaccustomed ways of a new world, with the same sweet patience and simplicity that characterized her life.

I am not competent to speak of her musical career in this city and must leave it to abler minds to do it justice. She brought letters from wise and good men in Europe which at once placed her cause in the best hands. The extracts from the valuable sketches of Charlotte Mulligan and Harriet Hare McClellan, former pupils and friends, which follow my imperfect record, will supply the information I cannot give. From Dr. Furness she had the highest service that devoted friendship could give, since he gave time and personal labor and much care in translating her manuscripts into exquisite English. Her work on "The Voice in Singing" is entirely her own. In the "Voice in Speaking" she had much assistance from her son, Dr. Carl Seiler, in the physiological parts. In establishing her school of vocal music she had the personal assistance and generous backing of many devoted friends.

I may mention here that within two years of her residence in Philadelphia Mrs. Seiler was made a member of the American Philosophical Society, an honor accorded to but six women since its foundation: the Princess Catherine Romanowa d'Aschkow, Mrs. Somerville, Miss Maria Mitchell, Mrs. Emma Seiler, Mrs. Louis Agassiz and Miss Helen Abbot.

I have heard that she was not a good business woman, and I can well believe it. No one has all the gifts. Her monumental work consists in the voices she trained, and in the noble principles of art she inculcated. I am told that the principal strength of her teaching lay in cultivating purity of tone and truthfulness of expression.

Those who think that she overdid the value of technique, would do well to read her fine chapter on "The Esthetic View" in "The Voice in Singing." It was one of her strongest and deepest principles, differing greatly from some modern ideas, that art and genius cannot do the best if divorced from morality. So she despised Wagner's music, and would say indignantly, "He is a man of immoral life; we must not allow that the music of the future can be furnished from such a source." As one of her dear friends said of her to me, "No, Mrs. Seiler could never believe

that a bitter spring could bring forth sweet waters. It was the same with her innocent pure mind in all art," said this same discerning friend. "She could walk about a room full of nude figures with real enjoyment of the exquisite outlines, but let her see a fully veiled figure whose attitude or expression denoted meanness or low tastes and a shudder went through her."

I had not a close intimacy with Mrs. Seiler; she was too much occupied for me to have been willing to take up much of her time; but those who knew her better can easily fill out and correct the only portrait of her that my warm personal friendship allows. She came at intervals an uninvited but most welcome guest to take tea and pass the evening with us; those evenings will never be forgotten.

Her conversation had a rare charm, and was by no means confined to those subjects she would have been supposed to be most interested in. She had an appreciative interest in what each friend had most at heart. The young artist in painting was surprised to encounter in her such sympathy with the humblest efforts, and was charmed with her accounts of the various schools of art in the Old World, and her stories of wonderful paintings and their effects. The scholar and the student found her a delighted and receptive listener to his researches in Archæology or Egyptology; and her personal stories of distinguished scholars whom she had known intimately in Europe lighted up the moments she gave them. Often most amusing in its dramatic characterization of persons and events her conversation was always kindly and could not wound. I must make one exception. There were occasions where she was carried out of herself by her indignation at what she knew or believed to be wickedness. But these occasions were rare. She had in the main a sweet and patient temper as surely as she had a warm and loving heart and a sunny spirit. One remembers far oftener the delicious humor, the innocent childlike mirthfulness with which she would tell of her own adventures and escapades. I recall how, after her first visit to Europe, after she had made a home among us, she came to spend an evening with us, and the glee with which she told us one little incident of her travels. She was in Italy, and I think on the train between Rome and Naples, when some ladies who were attracted by something she said about music to her companion joined in the conversation. In the course of it they mentioned that the Italian government had directed that the works of Mrs. Emma Seiler on the "Voice" (an American lady they called her) should be introduced into all the schools. Do you know her, they asked? She looked reflective. "Yes, I do know that woman quite well indeed," said Mrs. Seiler; "she is a good woman and she knows quite well about the voice; she has studied it long. Ladies, your gouvairnment [so she pronounced it] has done a very good thing indeed to direct that the books of Mrs. Seiler shall be taught in the schools. I will myself tell her just so soon as I return to America." And she bade them farewell without disclosing her identity.

There is no doubt that she was impulsive and impetuous; those qualities could not have existed apart from the divine energy that accomplished such results. The sources of our virtues are also the sources of our faults. Let it be said that she was sometimes undisciplined in speech, and sometimes misunderstood her friends. We will remember that she came to us Puritans, Quakers, self restrained people, from a demonstrative and enthusiastic nation of Europe, and that we are quite as likely to have misunderstood her. Let us remember, too, the constant strain and stress of her hard-working life in a profession of all others trying to nerves and spirits. And if she demanded much of others she was harder on herself. After toilsome days she often studied into the small hours of the night to keep herself at the high-water mark of knowledge which she conscientiously exacted of herself.

In 1883 her children induced her to give up a life of such incessant exertion, to close her school of vocal art, to take a trip to Europe for relaxation, and on her return to take only private pupils. Her visit to Europe at this time illuminated the remaining years of her life; everywhere she met with warm friendship and cordial admiration. When she returned, it was to a peaceful home, where loved children and grandchildren could often come to see her, where she received pupils through the day, and lived alone with one faithful, loving German servant to whom she was both friend and mother. It was a quiet, retired but peaceful life. She had always been simple and unworldly, full of humanity and taking delight in small pleasures, such as lie within the reach of all. The companion of princes, the friend of the first statesmen and philosophers, poets and musicians of Europe, the beloved of Clara Schumann and our own Anna Jackson, found joy in making one poor German girl happy and in being made happy by her. "We go to the Park in the hot summer days, Paulina and I; we sit down by the water, and under the trees and hear the birds sing; we look at the children on the flying-horses and we visit the Zoo. In the winter if we are tired or lonesome Paulina and I will go to the opera. Sometimes we do go to see Buffalo Bill, and we laugh and shake all over, and that rests us."

Mrs. Seiler left us on the morning of December 21, 1886, at two o'clock. She had been ill for nearly two weeks, but few persons had known of it, and it was a surprise to nearly every one. She had often said she hoped she might not live beyond the age of sixty-five, and her wish was granted. Her disease was spinal meningitis, and she was unconscious from the beginning of her illness to its close. For her we could ask nothing better. She escaped the languors and disabilities of old age; she never tasted death. At the brief funeral service, I longed to hear some voices of those who had loved her and whom she had trained sing the beautiful hymn, "Oh Spirit freed from Earth."

After her hard-working, self-denying life, crowded with services to her fellow-men, and faithful to the end, she has entered into immortality. For, what Dr. Furness said of her in beautiful words (which I must not

try to quote accurately, but I am sure I caught his idea) is the great truth : What she thought or believed about immortality is of less consequence, than that she lived a life which must keep the soul near to God, here and hereafter.

Extracts from a Biographical Sketch of Madame Emma Seiler, by Charlotte Mulligan.

"The death of Madame Seiler, which occurred in Philadelphia recently, deprives the world of one of the most remarkable women of the century. Every teacher of the voice in America, every student who has made a specialty of the throat and vocal apparatus, knows the value of Madame Seiler's discoveries and her books upon these subjects are the standard authority. 'Not one of us has improved upon her work, with all our efforts,' said Dr. Lennox Browne to us, three years ago, in London, 'and she stands still the peer of the greatest of us all.' In this testimony hundreds of other physicians would agree, and the world of science has long known the importance of her researches, and accorded her an honorable position among its savans. Garcia was the discoverer of the laryngoscope, but Madame Seiler applied it, and followed out a course of study that, when presented to the world, greatly facilitated the efforts of those who were endeavoring to understand the vocal action. 'The greatest living authority upon the voice,' Garcia himself, styled her his friend and colaborer, and the encomium was rightly hers.

* * * * * * * * * *

"During her early life Madame Seiler became deeply interested in the study of medicine, her father being at that time physician to the court of Bavaria. It was considered almost a sin in that age for a woman to learn anything about the structure of the human frame, and every tendency towards the acquisition of such knowledge was promptly checked. These restrictions greatly hampered the young girl, but she found opportunity to read books from her father's library, and before her marriage had acquired an extensive knowledge. The voice appears always to have interested her particularly, and she was first attracted to the subject by the song of a pet bird. Her own description of the way in which she arranged to see the throat of a human being after death, illustrates the persistency with which she prosecuted her studies. Going to spend some time with an aunt, she made friends with a medical student in the town, and to him confided her desire. He, at the risk of being discovered, procured a throat and took it to the house late one night, when the old aunt had retired. 'Two weeks we worked together,' she said, 'examining the muscles, dissecting them with the greatest care and studying every detail.' This study was always done at night, but the time Madame Seiler counted as most precious to her, for it developed her understanding of a subject that was of the greatest importance, yet not at all familiar even to professional men. For several weeks after this experience her work

was constantly interrupted, and she struggled with many bitter trials. Her mind was not inactive, however, and she formed theories then that later on she demonstrated to be facts. Acoustics to her became a science that offered the greatest possible interest, and she studied the inflections in the cries in birds and beasts until they became a perfect language to her. Falling water, the different sounds in the atmosphere, and the myriad tones from the insect world, all had for her their harmonies or lacked the essentials of perfect tones. She heard in nature what is shut off from ears that are duller than hers, and she lived in a world upon the border of which we can only stand. The human voice, according to Madame Seiler's view, had never yet been developed to accomplish even half of which it was capable. Some of her theories were exemplified in her own case, and up to the last year of her life, she could produce superb tones, that rang and vibrated with wonderful power and beauty. The production of such tones required constant work, but once they were acquired they were well worth the labor and discouragement that attended the study. We have never yet heard a pupil, who had studied with this famous woman, who did not show either in the speaking or singing voice, some of the remarkable qualities that she knew the voice could be made to possess. One of these was richness of tone, a peculiar concentration that demanded attention, and an effect of power combined with sweetness. Madame Seiler possessed it to a remarkable degree, and imparted it to all those who had the intelligence to study with confidence in her great ability. The voice in speech was second only to the voice in song, and she laid great stress upon the care that young children should have when they are beginning to discriminate between sound and noise. No great singer ever came directly from Madame Seiler's care, because she paid most attention to those qualities which tend to make a voice retain its beauty and freshness. When those were acquired, then the accessories were undertaken, but many a pupil tired of the preparation, and other masters built upon her enduring foundation, reaping a glory that never could have been theirs but for her conscientious work. Madame Seiler was also a woman who had lived all her early life among scientific men in Europe who appreciated her mind and made much of her. Her life in this country was one of comparative isolation. She could not understand the lack of reverence and respect with which she came in contact, especially in younger people, and she sought her chief happiness among her books. The end came peacefully, and the bright, gifted woman fell quietly asleep. Her death falls heavily upon many throughout the country, for she had been a great benefactor to hundreds, who, through her instrumentality, have learned the true use of the voice. It is difficult to believe that her work is completed, to realize that all is over, that she is removed forever from this world. As one of the many who knew her value, who appreciated her true nature and wonderful knowledge, we pay a parting tribute as friend and pupil."

Berne. She was then twenty years old. For some years she lived in outward comfort, not called on for serious exertions beyond the cares for her children and the guidance of her family affairs. But in 1846 some speculations in which her husband had engaged failed; all his property except the estate on which they lived was lost, and from this time forth she lived a life of deep and constant anxiety, and under the necessity for unremitting exertion. They both thought that their home on the estate might be made remunerative by turning it into a private asylum for insane patients, and into this work Mrs. Seiler threw herself with the energy and ardor of her nature, making herself the sympathetic friend of those whose mental maladies were of the milder type, and having great influence over the violent. At one time, after watching successfully for some months a case of suicidal mania, the patient escaped her and was found to have hung herself. Mrs. Seiler, after an hour of heroic effort, succeeded in restoring the life that was apparently extinct. At another time, she was badly injured by lifting an insane woman, and carried that injury and the suffering it occasioned to her dying day. But she was never one to dwell upon personal sorrows and pains, or talk about them; nor could she help away her griefs by personal resentment, a poor way for any of us to be helped. But she went on courageously with the work appointed to her, only finding her eyes and her heart more open and sympathetic with her sufferers, and her hands more active.

In the year 1847 a famine came upon Switzerland, not due to failure of crops, but to political causes. The French invaded Switzerland in preparation for the Franco-Austrian War, blockaded all the outlets, and the price of provisions became so high that the very poor had no means to supply their wants. At Langenthal and in many other places, they fell dead in the streets from starvation. Mrs. Seiler's heart ached well-nigh to bursting with the miseries she saw around her—the dead and dying in the streets, the wretchedness of those who survived. Night and day she pondered on their distresses and thought over plans for their relief. But all her plans required money and she had none. One night in her agony she prayed, "Oh, my God, send me power to help my poor dying people! Oh, my God, show me the way!" "I prayed all night upon my knees," she said, "and by daylight my mind was clear."

She rose early, and having attended to her family and her patients, she went to the clergyman of the village, to ask for his sympathy and approval. When she had finished an ardent appeal to him, he said to her in a deep and solemn tone which she was fond of imitating, "Read the Bible to those dying people." And when she said, "But they are starving to death; they must have food," he only repeated mechanically, "Read the Bible to those dying people, every one." When she declined to do this, and rose impatiently to go, he said, in the same sepulchral tone, "When that great day comes when the Judge shall separate the sheep from the goats, where will *you* be?" "That does not concern me at all," said Mrs. Seiler, "whether I shall go with sheeps or goats. I was thinking of some-

thing very different. But you, sir, how shall it be with you in that day? Will you go to sheeps or goats?" There was no answer to this question, and she hurried away to carry out her vision of the night without the aid of the clergyman. "I walked to every comfortable house that I could reach on foot," she said, "and besought them to give me whatever they could spare in food or money." Her eloquence brought a generous response. Then she went through the wretched streets, and invited three hundred to come to her house the next day. She bought materials, and herself prepared large kettles of nourishing broth, and bought huge loaves of bread. Then she lodged and fed them through the day on her own premises. Many lives were saved by this timely aid, but this was but one part of Mrs. Seiler's midnight planning. As soon as the poor lives were enough restored for work she induced them to learn some little handicraft by which to help themselves. She herself understood all the beautiful methods of embroidery and exquisite darning and crocheting, and to these she added braiding of hats and baskets and mats, that she might teach them. The hands so awkward and unskillful at first, soon became expert under her instruction, and even very little children in the end did exquisite work. And now she had a real manufactory of salable articles. Then she sent to many rich persons at a greater distance to come and see. "I was a very handsome woman then" she said with naïve simplicity, "and I thought to myself, I will now make my beauty of some use. So I did send to all my courtiers [she meant admirers] to come and see me, and I made it very agreeable for them, and they did buy all my poor people's work, and that did give me much money, to take in and feed and teach more starving people, and then many young ladies of fine families came to me and said, 'Mrs. Seiler, we will learn all your arts, and then we will come and help you to teach the poor people;' and they did. And so the circle of blessing was extended."*

I cannot close this little history of one brief period of Mrs. Seiler's life without telling you that her methods in this time of her country's needs were so successful and far reaching that the Swiss government and afterwards the Swedish and Danish governments sent emissaries to see them; and so convinced were they of their goodness and practicability that they copied them in their own administration.

Her versatility and energy and physical strength were at this time very great, and her resources unfailing. During the whole period of the famine she had to plan carefully and keep the strictest account of expenses and also arrange new plans to replenish an ever-lessening treasury. So, while teaching the handicrafts, she set about discovering the fine natural voices which she knew must exist among the poor peasants who flocked daily to her estate. Having found fifty or more capable of it, she devoted

* Mrs. Seiler's daughter writes me: "When I was in Germany, I made it a point to ask my mother's brother and sister as well as old friends about her youth, and all agreed that she was not only the handsomest girl in Wurtzburg, and called 'The Rose of Wurtzburg,' but was also beloved by all who knew her."

Guiseppe Sergi, Rome (135); Prof. Gaston Maspero, Paris (135); Société des Sciences Naturelles et Archæologiques de la Creuse, Guéret, France (134); Prof. E. Mascart, Bureau Central Météorologique de France (135); Sir Henry W. Acland, Oxford, Eng. (135); Prof. J. P. Postgate, Cambridge, Eng. (135); Department of Science and Art, Royal Astronomical Society (135), Mr. Charles Leland, London (134, 135); Royal Dublin Society (135); Royal Society of Edinburgh, Royal Observatory, Mr. James Geikie, Edinburgh (135); Vermont Historical Society, Montpelier (134); Prof. Elihu Thomson, Swampscott, Mass. (135); Prof. James Hall, Albany, N. Y. (134); Rochester Academy of Science (135); Mr. Henry Carey Baird, Philadelphia (131–135); Wyoming Historical and Geological Society, Wilkes-Barré (135); California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco (131–135).

Accessions to the Library were announced from the Naturforscher Verein, Riga, Russia; K. K. Sternwarte, Prag; Osservatorio Marittimo, Trieste; Bayerische Botanische Gesellschaft, München; Société Neuchateloise de Géographie, Neuchatel; Direzione Générale della Statistica, Prof. Guiseppe Sergi, Rome; Prof. Paul Topinard, Paris; R. Academia de la Historia, Madrid; Philosophical Society, Cambridge, Eng.; Geological Society, Mr. Henry Wilde, London; Hon. George E. Foster, Halifax, N. S.; American Oriental Society, New Haven; Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.; Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences; College of Pharmacy, Philadelphia; U. S. Bureau of Education, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.; Historical Society, Mr. C. S. Wake, Chicago; California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco; Geological Survey of Arkansas, Little Rock; Observatorio Astronomico Nacional de Tacubaya, Mexico.

A photograph for the Society's Album was received from Mr. Samuel Wagner.

The decease of the following members was announced:

J. H. B. Latrobe, Baltimore, August, 1891.

Dr. D. Humphreys Storer, Boston, September 10, 1891, æt. 87.

Moncure Robinson, Philadelphia, November 10, 1891, æt. 89.
Rev. Thomas Hill, Portland, Me., November 21, 1891, æt. 73.

The Curators presented the following report:

HALL OF THE
AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,
104 SOUTH FIFTH STREET.
PHILADELPHIA, November 28, 1891.

The Curators, having fully considered the matter of the Peale Stone Age Collection now on deposit at the Academy of Natural Sciences, and all the facts relating thereto, as requested by resolution of November 6, are of opinion that a resolution should be passed requesting the return of said deposit to the custody of the Society in accordance with the terms of the bequest of the late Mrs. Peale.

PATTERSON DU BOIS.
J. CHESTON MORRIS.
R. MEADE BACHE.

On motion, the Society

Resolved, That the return of the Peale Stone Age Collection from its temporary place of deposit, the Academy of Natural Sciences, be now requested.

The Annual Report of the Treasurer was presented and referred to the Committee on Finance.

Mr. Price moved that the consideration of the report from Dr. Cope's Committee be deferred until the next stated meeting.

Dr. Cope read the report.

The subject was discussed and Mr. Price's motion was then carried.

On motion of Dr. Hayes, it was

Resolved, That the Secretaries present at the next meeting a report in writing of the cost of issuing the Proceedings quarterly and of such extra number not including the text and report a form to meet postal laws.

And the Society was adjourned by the presiding member.

Carey and Two of His Recent Critics, Eugen V. Böhm-Bawerk and Alfred Marshall.

By Henry Carey Baird.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, November 20, 1891.)

Permit me, this evening, to ask your attention to a brief examination of the recent criticisms of Carey by two economists—the one an Austrian, the other an Englishman. Although these two writers treat the economic problem, each from an entirely different standpoint, one is as remote from an appreciation of the truth as the other; and further, neither recognizing what constitutes the great fundamental principle in Carey's system, they have both left his position unassailed, as indeed it is unassailable. The Austrian is Böhm-Bawerk, Honorary Professor of Political Economy at the University of Vienna; the Englishman, Alfred Marshall, Professor of Political Economy at the University of Cambridge.

Prof. Böhm-Bawerk has published two ponderous treatises, the first intended to be destructive of other men's reasonings and theories, and is entitled, "Capital and Interest, a Critical History of Economical Theory;" the second, designed to be constructive of theories of his own, is entitled, "The Positive Theory of Capital"—whatever a "positive theory" may mean, seeing that man's vision, mental as well as ocular, being limited, and thus short of the capacity to take in the whole situation, he can have no absolute or positive knowledge—nothing more than his poor faculties permit of. Mr. Böhm-Bawerk's first book, as translated by Prof. Smart of Glasgow, makes of text, 8vo, 428 pages; the second, as translated, 8vo, 426 pages. while a distinguished professor of political economy, who thinks well of the author's labors, has recently assured me that the marrow of these 854 pages might have been put into forty pages. Such is the thoroughness of this Austrian *savant* that he inflicts upon the student of economics twenty-one times as many words as the ideas he possesses are worthy of in the presentation. As for myself, I can say that I have carefully and critically read the whole of these dreary pages—dreary because of an ever-recurring sense of the unsoundness of the author's premises, as well as of his conclusions.

The net result of Dr. Böhm-Bawerk's "Capital and Interest," wherein he charges Carey, in what he says of interest, of being guilty of "a tissue of incredibly clumsy and wanton mistakes," is that "*Present goods possess a greater value than future goods;*" that a "*loan is a real exchange of present goods against future goods;*" and "*Present goods possess an agio in future goods. This agio is interest.*"

Such is the actual product of 428 pages of the most complex, confusing, narrow, hair-splitting, and arrogant criticism, criticism, too, by a man who has himself built up a superstructure which rests upon a fallacy. This fallacy consists in the fact that the writer has included in and treated

under "Interest" things that are not interest at all. Interest is the compensation paid for the use of the instrument called money, and its substitute, credit, always expressed in a money of account, *and for them alone.*

This instrument, money, is the great instrument of association—that one thing, the possession of which, with its quality of universal acceptability, in highly organized—civilized—society, commands all other things to which we attach the idea of value. To talk of the rent of a house, a farm, or a garden, the freight or passage paid to a railroad, or a steamship, or a steamboat company, or proprietor, or the porterage in a cart, or a wheelbarrow, as interest, is to add a new and most vicious element of confusion to that despair of thoughtful men, that fruitful parent of misery to mankind, the "Dismal Science." The very word *agio*, which Dr. Böhm-Bawerk would apply to all manner of goods, wares and merchandise, had its origin with reference to a money of account, and to this hour it can be applied to or qualify no manner or form of thing not expressed in a money of account.

Further, Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has jumbled up the profit that a capitalist can make out of his own business ventures over and above the profit imagined to be properly due to his own time and labor, with the interest problem. Thus does he further and hopelessly bemuddle the subject of interest. He calls this profit, which is not interest at all, interest, and which it is impossible to separate from the results of the personal exertions, sagacity, experience, and risks of the capitalist—"natural interest." Where, in nature, will he find interest, where trade, money, credit, houses, ships, railroads, tools, wagons, wheelbarrows, textile fabrics—where, I would ask, without the application of human labor, any single commodity to which we attach the idea of value? Are not civilized society and all its appliances for forwarding trade, commerce, production and consumption, purely the work of man, and hence artificial? Is not this *natural interest* a collocation without meaning? Is not this doctrine of Dr. Böhm-Bawerk's, to use his own words, as applied to Carey, "one of those theories which cast discredit, not only on their authors, but on the science that lets itself be seduced into credulous acceptance of them, not so much that it errs, as for the unpardonably blundering way in which it errs?" For one, not only do I think that it is so, but to me it is a source of wonder and amazement, that the perpetrator of such blundering can criticise others in the severe and arrogant terms in which Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has done.

But what is to be thought of his treatment of Carey? Why, that it is simply infamous, for the reason that the necessary preliminary to refuting and denouncing him as guilty of a "tissue of incredibly clumsy and wanton mistakes" has been his misrepresentation. In order to refute him, he has been forced to attempt to make it appear that Carey was guilty of the stupidity of treating *distribution*, as Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has done, as *interest*, not *distribution*. What Carey himself calls "the law of distribution," he calls "Carey's interest theory." After quoting what Carey distinctly states regarding *distribution*, and which he calls such, he

comments as follows: "On these preliminary facts, then, Carey builds his great law of interest; that, with advancing economical civilization, the rate of profit on capital—that is, the rate of interest—falls, while the absolute quantity of profit rises" (the interjected words, "that is, the rate of interest," being Dr. Böhm-Bawerk's, not Carey's). Carey distinctly and emphatically says: "*Interest is the compensation paid for the use of the instrument called money, and for that alone.*" And again: "When a man negotiates a loan, he obtains money for which he pays interest; when he borrows the use of a house, he pays rent; when he hires a ship he pays freight."

This dictum of Carey's is not merely clear and to the point, but it is in accordance with the common understanding of mankind. To change it as Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has attempted to do, is to bemuddle and confuse the subject. Before he and his translator obtain the right to arraign Carey as "a confused and blundering writer," it is incumbent on them both to show that his definition is wrong, and that Dr. Böhm-Bawerk's definition is correct, and the only correct one. Until they have done so, their denunciations obviously prove their own incapacity properly to criticise a man of Carey's originality, lucidity, power, and far-reaching influence upon mankind.

Of the numerous economists whose doctrines Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has attempted to criticise, none has he denounced in terms so opprobrious as those applied to Carey and his distinguished disciple, E. Peshine Smith, and yet of all these men, the philosophy of none but Carey and Smith is capable of explaining the real cause of interest, or of clearing up the confusion into which Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has become involved regarding value.

Interest owes its existence to precisely the same cause and conditions as does money—the necessity under which man stands for association and combination with his fellow-men. But for this necessity there would be no interest, no money, indeed no political economy. Any system, or pretended system, of political economy which is not grounded on this great principle of association, this overmastering .condition of man's nature, is false and misleading, a delusion and a snare—a system of confusion leading not only to further confusion, but to the wreck of the hopes, the rights, the civilization of mankind. The system of Dr. Böhm-Bawerk does not even remotely recognize it; he has not even the faintest glimmer of it, although all political economy is and must be concerned about it. He has dropped out of his system the great fundamental law, the great dominating fact as to the existence of man in society. His system is therefore of necessity not only useless, but worse than useless.

The second treatise of Dr. Böhm-Bawerk, "The Positive Theory of Capital," gives us, as a net result, the old and exploded wage-fund theory of the economists, with, as an annex and as a result of his interest theory of present goods possessing an agio in future goods, the effects of extension

of processes of production and the number of producers to be provided for during all these imaginary processes—extended or non-extended, though they be. In fact, he has added to, not decreased, the complication which arose out of the unsound and even absurd wage-fund theory, involving, as it did, a fixed "national subsistence fund."

Attempting to bolster up the theory of saving as a source of capital, Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has no real conception of the actual source of capital. His whole theory is antagonistic to the truth that wealth consists in the power of man to obtain mastery over nature; and that capital is the instrument by means of which that mastery is acquired; and further, that capital accumulates in the exact ratio that consumption follows production, and that matter takes upon itself new and higher forms—what we term consumption and production being mere transformation of substance; in other words, the more continuous and rapid the motion of society, the greater the power to accumulate capital and to acquire wealth.

An entire "book" is devoted to the discussion of "Price," in which even a definition of that vital word is wanting, the evidence being therein presented, in abundance, that the author is quite unaware of the fact that price is the expression of the power of a commodity to command money in exchange, and is always expressed in a money of account.

While two entire volumes are filled with discussion looking towards the effort to establish the cause of interest and of the rate of interest, Dr. Böhm-Bawerk has not even the most crude conception of why it is that people are obliged to borrow money or credit, or goods, or rent houses, or factories, or why one man buys and another man sells labor power. If he had recognized association with his fellow-men as the most dominating necessity of man's nature, and that money, with its qualities of universal acceptability, and of almost perfect divisibility and aggregation, was the necessary instrument of association, he would not have inflicted upon mankind such a tissue of learned fallacy in reference to "present goods" and "future goods," labor wages and the wage-fund theory. Above and beyond all, he would not have made those fundamental errors as to interest, which is paid only for the use of money or credit expressed in a money of account, but which he has jumbled up with the hire of all sorts and kinds of goods, wares and merchandise. He does not even know why "present goods" possess what he calls an *agio* in "future goods," *i. e.*, because of the necessity under which man stands for association and combination with his fellow-men.

Marshall.

Under the title of "Principles of Economics," Prof. Marshall, of the University of Cambridge, has published the first volume, 754 pages, of a treatise in which no great broad principle is presented, in which no end of petty details are given, and in which not a single clear and valuable analysis of economic phenomena is to be found; and in which an entire absence of the true capacity for analysis is shown. The profundity of

Prof. Marshall may be judged from the fact that he says: "It makes indeed little real difference to the life of a family whether its yearly income is £1000 or £5000." No one but an economist could enunciate such nonsense, and still retain his position as an authority in a high department of knowledge.

His book, largely accepting the doctrines of Ricardo, is full of apologies for him, and for his inaccuracy of statement. For instance, he says:

"His exposition is as confused as his thought is profound. He uses words in artificial senses which he does not explain, and to which he does not adhere, and he changes from one hypothesis to another without giving notice. If, then, we desire to understand him, we must interpret him generously, more generously than he himself interpreted Adam Smith. When his words are ambiguous, we must give that interpretation which other passages in his writings indicate that he would have wished us to give them."

It is quite proper that a teacher who can talk in this style should have no difficulty in deciding that Carey and others who have refuted Ricardo do not understand him. After myself reading "Ricardo" more than thirty years ago, I told Mr. Carey that I could not understand what he was driving at. His reply was, "Ricardo did not himself understand." Nor do I think he did. Confusion in language involves confusion not merely in argument, but in thought; and in no other department of knowledge but that of political economy, would it be possible for one who needs such apologies, as those made for Ricardo by Prof. Marshall, to become the founder of a distinct school.

The blunders which Mr. Marshall has made with reference to Carey and Frederick List, and especially as to the indebtedness of the former to the latter, are most remarkable.

For instance, he says Carey was born in Ireland, when, had he taken the least trouble to examine any biographical notice of him, he would, at a glance, have seen that he was born in Philadelphia. Then he asserts that List's "Outlines of a New System of Political Economy," a tract published in Philadelphia, 1827, and its wide circulation were "the beginning of his fame, as it was of the systematic advocacy of protectionist doctrines in America," whereas this movement was commenced in 1819, and Mathew Carey was one of the originators of it; and three years before the appearance of List's tract, or in 1824, the first really protective tariff enacted in the United States was passed.

Then he says that this publication of List's was made ten years before the publication of Carey's first important work, his "Principles of Political Economy," and adds, "Carey owes many of his best thoughts on protection to List."

Now, Carey's attention to economic subjects commenced in 1835, when he published his "first important work," the "Essay on the Rate of Wages," and there is not a particle of evidence that he ever read the insignificant little tract of Frederick List. If he ever did he wholly failed

to profit by it, as in all of his earlier books and papers he advocated the doctrine of *laissez nous faire*, never having publicly declared his adhesion to protection until the publication of "The Past, the Present, and the Future" (1848). Nevertheless, in each of his early books will be found the germs of those vital and far-reaching principles which he so grandly developed in his "Principles of Social Science," his progress from 1835 to 1860, and even to 1875, having been steadily onward. By the beneficent practical working of the tariff of 1842, he was, in 1844, induced by the logic of events to range himself on the side of protection as a necessary national policy. But it was not until 1847 that he was able to reconcile it to economic theory.

In 1847, when he had outlined his law of the occupation of the earth, which has completely overthrown the basis upon which rested Ricardo's theory of rent, he readily emerged from the last vestiges of a belief in so absurd a theory applied to an artificial society as *laissez nous faire*. Lying in bed one morning, picturing to himself the settlers on the sides of the hills, moving down into the valleys and approaching each other, as wealth, power and civilization grew, he realized the vital importance of bringing the consumer to the side of the producer, and, as he said to me, "I jumped out of bed, and, dressing myself, was a protectionist from that hour."

The fact is Carey, not having studied German until 1856, List's "National System of Political Economy," published in Germany in 1841, was to him a sealed book until 1851, when a French translation by Richelot appeared in Paris. Carey's copy of this book in the Library of the University of Pennsylvania, with his pencil marks in it, showing passages which he considered striking, clearly proves that he made but little use of it.

But the question of Carey's position as a social philosopher is not to be determined by whether or not he picked out from some other investigator one idea here or another there, but by his philosophy as a whole. His great merit does not consist in the fact that he has demonstrated that association and combination with his fellow-men is the greatest need of man, or that in the utilization of labor power—the most perishable of all commodities—is to be found the measure of the growth of a people in wealth, power and civilization; or that money, the instrument of association, by giving utility to billions of millions of minutes, which without it would be wasted, acts as a great saving fund for labor; or that a necessary condition of advance in civilization is that man passes from the use of poor tools, including poor lands, to the use of good tools, including good lands; or that value is the measure of the power of nature over man, and is to be found in the cost of reproduction, while utility is the measure of man's power over nature; or that, with the development of this last-named power, distribution takes place under a law by virtue of which to labor goes a large proportion of a larger yield—freedom thus growing with the growth of wealth and civilization.

It is not by reason of the clear demonstration of any one of these great

truths, or of all of them, but of their demonstration *plus* the interlocking and the interweaving of these vital truths into one great and harmonious whole. Thus and thus only is it that he has presented a system of social philosophy deeper and broader than that of any other economist from the days of Plato and Aristotle down to our own time. By this touchstone —fundamental truths with their relations to each other, worked out into a complete system—is it that Carey is to be judged, and judged rightly and justly, and not by mere verbal criticism, or by an attempt to prove that an idea here or another one there was previously promulgated by some other teacher.

A great admirer of Frederick List, for what he had done in building up the German Empire—a work without which Bismarck, Von Moltke, and William I would never have been heard of in history—Carey had but a poor opinion of List's "National System of Political Economy," for the very good reason that it lacked just what he had aimed to present in his own books, and what are absent in Prof. Marshall's volume, broad, deep and enduring fundamental principles, interlocked and interwoven into one grand and harmonious whole, like Carey's own great and noble "Principles of Social Science." Indeed, no such voluminous writer on social subjects as Carey has ever lived and written who has paid so little heed to the writings of other economists. His own economic and statistical library, now in the Library of the University of Pennsylvania, will bear me out in this statement. Colwell collected the writings of political economists; Carey collected those of travelers, historians, statisticians and scientists; and to these he went for the material out of which to demonstrate those great principles which will ever bear his honored name.

How far Carey has been successful in impressing his philosophy upon the people of the United States, and upon the national policy, is well depicted by a recent and far from friendly critic as follows: "Measured by results," says Prof. Levermore, "the Carey school, and not its opponent, has achieved success in the United States. For thirty years, the stone which the builders rejected has been the head of the corner. Carey and his friends never captured our colleges; but, for a generation, they had dominated five-sevenths of the newspaper offices, a pulpit far more influential than the professorial chair. The arguments to which Carey gave form and eloquence are in the mouths of more than half the business men and farmers of our country; and, in the last Presidential campaign, the Republican party reaffirmed the extremest principles of the Carey school, including even the rancor towards England, with a violence and absoluteness that would probably have surprised Carey himself" ("Political Science Quarterly," Dec., 1890, pp. 572, 573).

The reason for this is not far to seek. Carey dealt in broad and enduring principles so interlocked and intertwined that any man of ordinary intellect, once captured by them, might ever after during his life bid adieu to the hope of freedom from their intellectual domination.

Nihil est veritatis luce dulcius. Indeed, nothing is sweeter, nothing

more delightful, than the light of truth ; and Carey has given to mankind a great body of truth, instinct with life and being, an organic whole demonstrating those principles which govern the well-being, the happiness and the civilization of the human race. The destruction of the foundations of this system demand men of greater power than Eugen V. Böhm-Bawerk and Alfred Marshall. They have not even made a lodgment in the outworks. In the citadel all is calm and serene, without apprehension of successful attack by such incompetent leaders—leaders who lack at once a knowledge of even the elementary principles of economic truth, and the power to group and place in proper relation to each other those things which they do teach, if, indeed, their theories have any connected relations one to another. If they have such relations, these gentlemen have failed to show them.

Vocabularies of the Tlingit, Haida and Tsimshian Languages.

By Dr. Franz Boas.

(Read before the American Philosophical Society, October 2, 1891.)

The following vocabularies were collected by the author when studying the Indian tribes of British Columbia, under an appointment of the Committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, appointed for the purpose of investigating and publishing reports on the physical characters, languages, and industrial and social conditions of the Northwestern tribes of the Dominion of Canada. It was decided that in the report of the Committee a brief comparative vocabulary only should be printed. As, however, the languages of the North Pacific Coast of America are little known, the vocabularies may be found to possess some value.

The following alphabet has been used :

The vowels have their continental sounds, namely : *a* as in *father ; e* like *a* in *mate ; i* as in *machine ; ō* as in *note ; u* as in *rule*. In addition the following have been used : *ä, ö* as in German ; *â* = *aw* in *law ;* E = *e* in *flower*.

Among the consonants the following additional letters have been used : *g'*, a very guttural *g*, similar to *gr ; k'*, a very guttural *k*, similar to *kr ; q*, the German *ch* in *Bach ;* H, the German *ch* in *ich ;* Q, between *q* and H ; *c* = *sh* in *shore ;* ç = *th* in *thin ; tl* an explosive, dorso-apical *l ; dl* a palatal, dorsal *l*. ' following a consonant designates the u position of the organs of articulation.

I. ENGLISH-TLINGIT.

Stikeen Dialect.

A.

above, on top of, ka.
Acer tlrā'tlrē.
adam's apple dlētu'q(1) kagu'ntlē(2) = neck (1) ? (2).
afraid (akū ti) qētl.
again dētsō.
ahead ıān.
Alnus kē'cic.
always dj'ētlu'k, yūk·a.
Anas boschas kindētcunē't = moving straight up.
—— *clypeata* k·in.
—— *histrionica* ts'utsk.
ancestor acukua.
angry k·'ant—wa nuk.
ankle k·'ōs t'aktl = foot knuckle.
Anser t'ā'wak·.
apron, woman's, cūqe't'a.
—— *dancing,* sᴇ'n(1)k·ēt(2) = ? (1) apparel (2).
apparel, wearing, k·ēt.
Arctostaphylus uva ursi tinʜ.
arm, hand, djin.
armor, wooden, tlrā'tlrē (= Alnus).
—— —— *of parallel sticks,* sᴇ'n k·ēt (see *apron*).
—— *held in mouth,* k·'a(1)koē't(2) = mouth (1).
Arnica cordifolia an(1)ka(2)nā'gu (3) = town (1) on (2) medicine (3).
around, outside, da.
I walk around house hīt da ya qoa gūt.
arrow tcunē't = moving straight.
—— *double-pointed,* tcunē't k·'atlā'-k·ē.
ashes k·'an itē' = fireplace.
Astur atricapillus kyēdju'k.
Atlda, name of a place.
aurora k·'an(1)yiq(2)k·ū(3)watē(4) = fire (1) like (2) out of doors (3) color (4).
—— gyīts'ō'k.
axe cᴇnqoā'rī.
—— *stone,* kyē't'ō.

B.

baby g·ata gua'tsgō (male and female).
back dik·.
—— *of hand* djin kōtl.
bad tlētl wu c k'ᴇ = not good.
badger nōsk.
bark gan da = wood around.
basket for blankets nē'etl.
——*for berries* k·ak'.
bat tsik'rēditā'n.
to bathe dᴇcūtc.
baton of shaman wū'sag·a'.
beach tl'ēn'ē'tē = sand place.
bear, black, ts'ēk.
—— *grizzly,* qūts.
—— *white (polar),* cāq.
beard k·'atatsā'rē.
beaver ts'ikrēdē'.
bed yē'at = something to lay on (Chilkat).
bedroom īt.
bee gandasā'dji.
belly yūra'.
belt sī'gī.
berry tlēk'.
—— *salmon,* wutst'ān tlēk'.
—— *black,* gawa'k· (Rubus).
—— *dried,* atka qōk·.
—— *black,* t'ōtc tlēk' = blackberry.
Betula glandulosa tlēri's.
—— atlā'rī.

bird tō′tli.
—— *a species of, with red wings,* kōn.
black t′ōtc (see *soot*).
blanket tl′ē.
—— *cedar bark,* tsātlk k·′ō′ū.
—— *martin skin,* k′ōq k·′ō′u.
—— *Chilkat,* nā′qēin.
Blennius sp., dlūt′.
blind tlk·ōctēn.
blood ci.
to blow (*wind*) dō′wanuk
to blow uq.
blue ts′ōyi′qatē (ts′ō? yiqatē = colored).
—— *jay* k·′eck‘.
board for drying salmon ganirē′t = smoke place.
bone s′ak· (see *tall, short*).
boom s′ᴇ′sa tō s′ā′gē=sail in oblique.
bow of canoe cᴇkᴇ′.
bow sᴇk·s.
bowstring sᴇk·s nā′sē = bow guts.
box kēt, tlak·t.
—— *large,* tluk·t tlēn.
bracelet kīs.
Brachyrhampus marmorata tc′īt.
braid ca kᴇsī′t (ca = head).
brains tlak·ēgī′.
breakers tīt ra tl′ēk· (tīt = wave).
breast ʜē′tk·a.
breath dᴇsē′uk.
brother, elder, unu′q.
—— *younger,* kik‘.
brother-in-law (wife's brother) kan.
brush ʜī′t′a.
—— *for clothing* at k·a ʜī′t′a.
Bubo virginianus tsisk‘.
Buccinum tl′itlk‘.
bucket k·‘ē′ca.
butterfly tlētlu′.
by and by yīdᴇtqᴇ′ñga, tlīts′a′.

C.

calf of leg ts′ē′yu.
Caltha palustris ataguē′k‘ē.
cambium of Tsuga sᴇk·.
Canace obscura nukt.
canoe yāk‘.
—— *Tlingit,* sīt.
—— *Haida,* wutsdē′.
Cardium Nutalli (cockle) g·′atl ka′tsk.
cariboo wutsi′ʜ.
carpet nētlrītl′i′tī.
to carry in hand ran—tᴇn.
cat dūc (Chinook).
cedar, yellow, qār.
—— —— *young,* tlᴇqrᴇ′tē.
cedar bark tīr.
—— —— *prepared for weaving mats* rūt.
cedar (*and spruce*) *root* qāt.
—— —— *hat* qāt ts′āq.
Ceryle Halcyon tlaqanēts′ē′.
chair ka ra kī′djet = on top of which one sits.
chatterbox k·′a tlēyō′s = mouth playing (see *to lie*).
cheek wac.
chief ank·ā′ō (see *rich*).
child g·it′a′.
chin tēg·.
Chiton Stelleri cā′u.
—— *tunicata* kōr.
Circus Hudsonicus qēq.
clear, it is, weather, a ka wa qats.
cloud gūts (see *heaven*).
cloudy k·ū tlī gūts = it is out of doors cloudy.
club g·′uts (see *crabapple tree*).
coal t′ōtc (see *black*).
cold sia′t.
Colymbus glacialis k·ᴇg·ē′it.
column, heraldic (totem post) kōtē′ra.
comb qēdo′.
common people īcā′n (see *poor*).
cone of Picea ts′ōtsā′ne.
to cook (at—)saē′.
copperplate tina′.
cormorant yōk·.
corpse narū′.

cotton goods s'ᴇ'sa (see *sail*).
Cottus sp. wēk·.
council atkaqtoā'k.
country ā'n(ē).
cousin (father's sister's child) at.
—— (mother's sister's child) tlak'. (see *sister*).
crab s'ā'u.
crabapple tree g·'uts.
crescent (see *moon*).
cross (*minded*) k·'ān—raō (see *angry*).
crow ts'ᴇ'quētl.
crown of head ca kī = head top.
to cry g·āq.
Cychrus longicollis as k·'tō yik ca' = woman in the woods; as k·'tō = woods, ca = woman.

D.

dagger tsā'g·atl.
to dance a—tl'ēq.
dance of shaman iqt dāidē'dē.
dancing apparel tl'ēq k·ēt.
danger at sea kūtlēqē'tlcᴇn.
—— name of Yētl's mother, K·ōtsō teriᴇ't.
daughter sī (probably child, said by mother).
day yigᴇrī' (see *noon*, *to-day*).
daylight k·ēwa'.
dead (na) na.
deaf tlk·otl'ᴇqtc.
deer k·okā'n.
dentatia tē'k·ē.
difficult tli tsē.
dish grease g'ᴇkᴇnē'.
—— *of mountain goat horn* tlī'nēt ts'ik'.
dishes nūk'.
diver ts'uts.
to do sī, yē—sinē'.
dog kyētl.
doll sī (see *daughter*).
door k·'ahā't.
dragon fly tlk·acēcqā'wu = no man head-hair. They are said to sing: tlētl(1)qat(2)ca(3)caqawu (4) = not (1) I (2) on (3) head hair (4) = no hair is on my head.
to dream a—djūn.
to drink tana'.
drum gā'u.
dry wa qōk.
duck g'uts.
dust tc'ēʜ, k·es'ē'dja.

E.

eagle tc'āk'.
—— *black*, tc'āk'(1)iē's(2) = eagle (1) black (2).
ear gūk.
earring djāc.
east wind nānaqē't.
—— tl'ak·ak·a'q (Chilkàt).
easy tlētl tli tsē = not difficult.
to eat (at—) qa.
ebb tide renatlē'n.
eggs of lice ʜīts.
elbow t'ēr.
elk tsisk'.
Empetrum nigrum qitlēwu'ts'ē.
empty aqu'ktlē.
end cᴇ.
Epilobium angustifolium k·ō'kān nā'k' = deer medicine.
ermine da
evening qā'na
excrement hā'tlē.
eye wak·.
eyebrow ts'ē.
eyelashes wak· qā qē'q'ō.
eyelid, lower, wak· tᴇri.
—— *upper*, wak· k·a'.

F.

face rᴇ.
far (na) tl'.
far out into the sea dēkyī.
fast rᴇsīyē'k.
fat, for greasing face, rᴇ nēts'ē'.

father ic.
father-in-law rū.
fathom wāt (see *tall*, probably *length*).
—— (from elbow over breast to finger) k·āt'ē yiq ku wāt.
—— (from shoulder over breast to finger) qik cE gu'ntlē yiq ku wāt.
—— (shoulder to finger of same arm) qik cE yiq ku wāt.
—— (elbow to finger of same arm) tcik·ē yiq ku wāt.
feather k·'oā'tl.
feather bed k·'oā'tlriā't = feather place.
to feel, I feel better, ag·a ctuq dēnōk.
fern tsāts.
to fight g'an.
finger tl'ēk· (see *toe*).
—— *first*, tc'ēq.
—— *second*, tl'ēk·(1)tlēn(2) = finger (1) great (2).
—— *third*, tl'ēk·(1)g'a'tsgō(2) = finger (1) small (2).
—— *fourth*, wun ka tc'ēq (see *first finger*).
fire k·'ān.
fire drill tōutlē' (see *round*, and *to turn round*).
fireplace k·'an i'tē = fire place.
fish, fresh-water, hin tak'a'tē.
—— *a small species*, KH'ē'ta.
fish line kyē'u.
—— —— *of kelp*, tlEra'nē.
fishotter nukcēyā'n.
flood tide dāk·nEdē'n.
flounder tsE'nt'ē.
to fly dē'k·ēn.
foot k·'ōs.
forehead kāk'.
fox nag·āts'ē' (borrowed).
friend qonē'.
frog Hiqtc.
in front of k·'ē'yē (Chilkat).
frost kaquā'n.
Fucus vesiculosus tarē'dē.
fuel gan (k·'an ? = fire).
full cawahik.
fur seal q'ōn.

G.

Gallinago Willsoni gūtsrē tōtli = heaven bird.
gens tān.
get up! cē'ndE!
girl cātk'.
to give djēt—tē.
——*give me to drink!* hāhēa qa tana'!
to go gōd, at.
I go to town ān(1)k·'ē'yē(2)dē(3)qoa(4)gūt(5) = town (1) in front of (2) ? (3) I (4) go (5) (Chilkat).
good (rE) k'E.
good-natured (tlī) an.
grandfather, mother, tlētlk'.
grandson cqa'nkē.
grass sō'uk·.
grease ēqē'.
gull kyē'tlEdī'.
gutts nāsē'
GutscEtla, Chilkat name = horizon mother.

H.

Haida Dēkyina' = people far out seaward.
hail kadE'ts.
hair ca qā'wu = head hair.
hairdress of shaman k'īts.
half cu'rō.
halibut tcātl.
hand djin.
Harelda glacialis yāau'nē.
HaricanE'kō = old woman under us, a mythical person.
hat ts'āq.
—— *war hat, shaman's hat*, wak·(1)k·ēt(2) = face (1) wearing apparel (2).
to haul in sī'yik·.

he hu, hōtc, qsᴇtē′.
head ca.
head ornament used in dances ca k·ēt.
to hear aq, aqtc
heart tēk·.
heaven gutsᴇrē′ = cloud place.
heavy (re) datl, (tli) tsē′.
heels k·’ētak‘.
heron tlak‘.
herring rā′u.
herring rake ʜī′tla (see *brush*).
high water ran k·’ᴇtwada′.
his tō(—ri).
hoof aguē′ntlē.
hook, halibut, naq.
—— *round,* t’ēq.
horizon k·ū gāts.
—— gutscᴇ = sky end.
horn cēdē.
horse gyūdā′n (Chinook); dik· ka ra kidjēt (Sitka) = back upon sit.
house hit.
—— *dug out part in centre of,* tāk·.
humming bird tag·atg·iya′.
hungry, probably: ran : *I am hungry* qat ran owa ha; *it makes us hungry* haēt ran ā wu si ha; *if I am hungry* qat ran hē′nē.

I, J.

I qat, qatc.
ice t’ēk·’.
icicle k’iri t’ē′k’ē = above ice.
inside tō, g·ē.
it is inside white a g·ē ru.
instrument ʀᴇrē′t.
island k·’āt.
ivory cuqdu′k.
jaw, lower, q’ats.
just a short time ago, resū′.

K.

kelp gīc.
—— *swimming apparatus of,* kutlt’ē′.
kelp cake tlāk·a′sk.
kettle, wooden, ōq’akā′gante.
kidneys kahā′gō.
killer (Delphinus Orca) kyīt.
knee kyīr.
kneejoint sā′rē.
kneepan ca k·unū′k’ō.
knife tlta.
—— *large,* wēks, gwa′tla.
knothole in a board k·ats.
to know aqtc = to hear often.
—— cᴇgōk = to understand.
knuckles (djin) kagu′ntl.
Kyinastl’ac, name of a man.

L.

labret g·ak‘.
—— *silver nail,* k·’annōq (k·’a = mouth).
—— *large plug,* k·’a nd·āk·’a′.
ladder dzēt.
Lagobus albus k·’ētsauwa′.
lame tlᴇk·a′tck.
language yuq’atᴇ′n̄gi (see *to speak*).
large tlēn, yēk‘ tligē′ (?).
to laugh (at—) cō′uk·.
to leave k·ōwatē′n.
Ledum palustre ts’ikc’ etldī′n.
left hand, ts’ᴇlnᴇqī (djin).
leg k·’ōs.
—— *of animals* atca′kari.
—— *above knee* k·ats.
leggings k·’ōs k·ēt = leg clothing.
liar k ’ā tlē′yē s’a′tē = mouth play master.
life tsēn.
light tlētl wu dᴇtl = not heavy.
lightning ʜētl’ē′gu = thunder bird opens his eyes.
like yiq = similar to.
Lina sp. rāg ′n wē′s’ = sun lice.
lip, upper, k·’a tlō (k·’a = mouth).
to listen (at—) sia′q (from aq = to hear).
little ga′tsʒō.

liver tl'ōk·.
long ku wa't, ye—ku wat (see *fathom*).
—— ku darē't.
long ago tc'ōtlā'k.
a long time (dē) tc'āk'.
loon cuwā'n.
louse wēs'.
low water ran ūwa tlā.
lungs kyēgū'.
Lupinus ka'ntak·.
Lycopodium clavatum k·ō'kan sī'gī = deer belt.

M.

to make sī.
man k·a, tlēingi't.
many k·tōq.
—— *men* k·u ciri tihē'n.
—— *things* at ciri tihē'n.
married, baptized, hīn qᴇrōdōwatē' = face put into water.
martin k'ōq.
mashed kaqᴇ'k'tl.
mask wuk· katadu'k = face not perforated.
mast sᴇ'sa (tō) a'sē = sail in tree.
master s'a'tē.
—— *of the upper world* Tahī't.
mat, made of cedar bark, g·ātc.
match, rubbed cedar bark, g·ātc.
may be—gūtl.
meat dlīr.
medicine nāk'.
Mergus serrator hin yikag·u' = water rim.
midnight tatᴇrī'n (tāt = night).
mind tōrū'.
mink tlēnik'u'qū.
month dīs.
moon dīs.
—— *new,* kā'wakis = all out.
—— *first crescent,* wutsik·ē'n.
—— *half,* dīs cu'rō.
—— *full,* dīs ran rā'wawᴇt.
moon, last crescent, rārē kā'nakis.
morning ra k'ē'naēn; ts'ō tāt = blue night.
mortar t'ēk·'a ria'ti = pounding place; ka qᴇ'guaret = rubbing upon place.
mother atlī'.
mother-in-law can.
mould tlaq.
mountain goat tōwē'.
—— *horn* tlīnē'tl.
mouse, shrew, kag·ā'k·.
—— kuts'ī'n.
mouth k·'a.
much tlēq.
mud ts'ēʜ, k·utlk.
mussels rāk.
my aq (—ri).

N.

nail qak·.
naked kᴇtldarᴇ'k.
navel kō'utl.
neck dlētu'q.
necklace s'ak· sēt = bone necklace.
nephew (sister's child) k·atlk'.
—— (brother's child) g·it'a' = child.
net g·ē'wū.
news nēg.
night tāt.
no tlēk'.
noon yigᴇrī'.
north wind is blowing qōn dōwanu'k.
nose tlō.
—— *ornament* tlō n nas.
—— —— *of shaman,* wak· k·ēt = face ornament.
nostril tlō tōru tlī.
not tlētl.
nothing tlēk'.
now hē'idᴇt, yā'ridᴇt.

O.

oak duk·.
oar aqa kdarᴇ't = long paddle.

oblique s'ā'gē.
œsophagus tlēkatcu'q'ō.
Oidemia perspicillata k·āq.
—— *sp.* kitc ka ru = wing on white.
Olachen sāk.
old man cān.
—— *woman* cā'wat cān.
on top of ka.
—— *I put it on top of,* akayiqa'ō.
one eyed tlēcauwa'k·ē.
to open one's eyes tl'ik'.
to open a salmon tlag·ᴇ'ts.
opposite kikᴇ'.
otter kucta.
—— *people* kucta k·a = otter man.
our ha (—ri).
outside da.
—— *the house* k·ū.
owl, white, k'ak'.

P.

to paddle adlqa'.
paddle aqa'.
to paint nēguō'tl; kᴇ—cᴇʜī't (see *brush*).
painter nēguō'tl s'a'tē = painting master.
paint, black, for face, t'ōtc = soot.
—— *red, for face,* tlēk.
palate ky'ē'k·tlᴇn.
palm of hand djin t'āk· (see *plant*).
Parmelia s'ē'qōnē.
Parus (titmouse), k·ā tōrū' = man's mind.
perforation of nose tlō tō rū tlī.
pestle (ka)t'ē'k'a = (upon) pounder; (ka) qē'gua = (upon) rubber.
Pica Hudsonica ts'ēg·ē'nē.
to pick gūk.
pipe ts'ēk· da kēt = smoke around box.
place for something rerē't, riā'ti.
plant of foot k·'ōs t'āk (see *palm*).
plate k·'ēyē't = something in front of (Chilkat).
plate made of slate tᴇts'ē'k.
point tlō.
Polygonatum tlēk'wa hintē = water berry.
Polyporus as tak·a'di = tree biscuit.
poor icā'n, k·'anickidē'q.
porcupine qatla g'ᴇ'tc = hair sharp.
porpoise tcītc.
post gādz'.
to pretend to be rich (tc'ᴇ) ck·'a—tli nēk'.
—— *to be hungry* (tc'ᴇ) tō—ran s ha.
—— *to be a Tsimshian* Ts'ōtsqᴇ'nqc—tliē'q.
puffin qēik.

Q.

quiver guē'tl.

R.

rabbit g āq.
racoon s'āq.
rafter kaqrēt.
rain sē'u.
rainbow kiteqanag·ā't = many colored wing.
it is raining (dāg) sētē'n.
raspberry tlēk' we'dē.
rattle, made of puffin beaks, djin kaqᴇ'ta (djin = hand), dje kaqᴇ'ta.
—— *shaped like a skull,* cēcō'q.
raven yētl.
razor k·arēyi'qa.
to recover from sickness (wu) nēq (see *to save*).
red k·'an yiq atē = fire-like color.
reeds tlak·ridzē.
rib ts'ōk·.
Ribes qahēwu'.
rich ank·ā'ō (see *chief*).
ridge of house s'ērᴇtō'.
right hand cīrᴇneqī (djin).
ring, finger, tl'ēk· ka kīs = finger on ring (see *bracelet*).

ring, foot k·'ōs ka kīs = foot on ring.
rock (*small island*) nō.
roof gan, hit ka = house-top.
rotten tl'ok·.
round tōutlcān (see *to turn round*).
to rub with pestle ka—tlEqEk'tl.

S.

sail s'E'sa (see *cotton goods*).
salmon qāt.
—— *humpback,* tcāts.
—— *spring,* g·at.
—— *hooknose,* tl'ō'uk.
—— *dog,* thītl.
—— *white,* t'ā.
—— *dried,* atk·'ēci qōk (qōk = dry).
salt ētl qōk = dry sea.
sand tl'ē'u.
satiated cāwa hik.
to save nēq.
Saxidromus s'ō'uk? gātl.
scraper Hi'ts'a.
sea rEk·ā'k, ētl.
—— *heavy,* āgōwatā'n.
seal tsā.
sea lion tān.
sea otter yuqtc.
to see tēn, sētē'n, tlī tēn.
septum tlō t'aka'.
shaman iqt.
shark tūts'.
sharp tlag'E'ts.
sheep, big horn, djE'nū.
sheets s'E'sa ka rē'gsē.
shell sp.? īē's.
Cik·'ā' tlūtō', a point near Sitka.
shoe tītl.
shore line hin k·'a'cō (hin = water).
short ku watl.
shoulder qikca'.
sick nēk'.
sinew, thread, tas.
to sing (at—) ci.
sister, elder, tlak.
skin dōuk.
skull ca s'ak· = head bone.
—— *of a corpse* ca k·Eqā'gō.
sky, clear, akawaqa'ts.
—— gutsErE = cloud place.
slave gō'uq.
to sleep ta.
sleepy (rE) ta owaha'.
small ga'tsgō.
to smell tsīnē'ky.
smoke ts'ēk·.
to smoke sk·a da ts'ēk· = mouth around smoke.
smoke hole gāt, gān.
—— *roof of smoke hole* ganē'tlē.
snail tāk·.
snake tl'ut tlā'k·.
snow dlēt.
it is snowing ara kawa dan.
son g·it'a' (probably child, said by father).
son-in-law kan, sēq'u'q (?).
song of shaman iqt k·'a cī'reē.
soot t'ōtc.
Sorbus kEltcanē't.
soup, made of berries, qu'ktlē.
south wind is blowing rE'ndēu dō'wanuk.
sparrow-hawk ganō'k.
to speak yug'a—tKū, rEka'.
Spermophylus Parryi tsātlk'.
spider k·asēst'ā'n.
spirit yēk'.
spoon citl.
—— *large bailer,* cīn.
—— *short,* cE'ca.
sprout wuts.
squid nāk'.
—— *used for bait* nEq nāk'.
squirrel kanātltsā'k.
—— *a small species,* tlk·ōqwē'tsa.
to stand gya.
stand up! gyidā'n!
star k·utaq'a'renaha.
to steal tā'ō.
to steer yūru tlaa'.
steering-paddle rEdī'gā.

stern of canoe gyikka′.
Sticta pulmonara acakarē′cl.
stockings tl'ēg'u′n.
storm ara ōdētē′.
stone thE.
stout ku tla.
straight, upright, kin de tcun.
—— *ahead* rān de tcun.
stomach yuru′.
stop crying c'ïtlk'E′tl.
storehouse in the woods tcEtl.
stranger t'auyā′t.
strawberry cak'.
street dē.
strong (rope, etc.) tlī wu′s.
—— *(man)* tlī tsē′n (see *life*).
summer k·utā′n.
sun (ra) gān.
the sun is shining (dag) gān.
sunset rē anaHi′H.
sunrise ky'ē anaHi′H.
swan g·uk·tl.
sweat t'ār.
sweat-lodge qār.
sweet tli nukts.
sweetheart tsērī′.
to swim rāndat'E′tc.

T.

tail tl'ēt.
tall (yē)—s'ak· ku wat = bone long.
temples wak·co′ (wak· = eye).
then adaqai′ō.
their hastō (—ri).
they has, hastc.
thief tā′ō s'a′tē = stealing master.
thin qun.
thine i(—ri).
to think of somebody su—s'ēt'E′n.
thou woe′, woe′tc.
thumb gō′uc.
thunder, thunderbird, Hētl.
tide hāt.
tired (wu ti) quē′tl.
Tlaqkāic, Chilkat name = perpetual man's father.
Tlingit tlëingī′t.
tobacco g·āntc.
to-day iā′yigEri.
toe k·'ōs tl'ēk = foot finger.
together wūc·tēn—ta.
—— *we laugh,* at tō ta cō′uk·.
to-morrow sērē′nk·.
—— *day after,* sērē′nk· tliraakEtē′n.
tongue tl'ōt.
tooth ōq.
town ān (see *country*).
trap iē′q.
tree k·ats.
tribe na.
—— *the heavenly,* k·ē′wa k ā′oqā′wō.
Tringa ayahī′a.
trout k·'oā′t.
trunk k·ō′uk·ōk·.
Tsimshian Ts'ōtsqE′n.
Tsuga rEn.
to turn round tōutl (see *round, fire-drill*).
to turn back, on foot, k·uq k·atudaa′t.
—— k·aqudigu′t.
—— *in canoe,* k·uqritla′.
the tide turns ara kān dīda′.
twins wūtc kikrE′dē = two together opposite.

U.

Ulva k·'atc.
uncle (father's brother) sā′nī.
—— (mother's brother) kak.
up dē kī.
uvula nūt'ari.

V.

Vaccinium Vitis Idæa nēgū′n.
—— *uliginosum* ts'īk'a′qk'.
—— *ovalifolium* kanat'ā′.
Valeriana tltcanislā′k'.
vein ts'ikc.
vertebra dik· s'ak· = backbone.
very lēq, sitē′.

Viburnum acerifolium k·ᴇqwē′q.
village, winter, tak'anē′.
—— *summer,* k·'utā′n.
voice sēk.

W.

to walk gōd, at.
wall gy'īrī′.
warm (rᴇ) t'a′.
warrior g·'ān s'a′tē = fighting master.
water hin.
wave tīt.
we ohān, ohā′nc.
weak tlētl wu tli tsēn = not strong.
west wind sā′naq.
wet (ti) tl'ᴇk·.
whale yār.
whistle tō uq sirēt = into plow place.
white ru, tlēd yiq atē′ = snow-like color.
widow, widower, hītltsatsēcā′wat.
willow tc'ātl.
wind ky'ētlca′.
wing kitc.
wing of nose tlōgūtc.
winter tāk (see *year*).
to wish sigō′, gācu′.
wolf g·ō′utc.
woman cā′wat.
—— *a man, who is in the habit of eloping with women,* cā s'a′tē = woman master.
woodpecker gan da da gūg' = wood around (= bark) around pick.
worms tl'uk·.
wrist djin t'ak·tl.

Y.

to yawn akyē′t.
year tāk (see *winter*).
yellow kyētl ha′tlē yiq atē = dog excrement-like color.
yes ā.
yesterday tatgᴇ (see *night*).
—— *day before,* tatgᴇ tliraakᴇ′t.
you riwā′n, riwā′ntc.
young ga′tsgō.
—— *man* rᴇdᴇ′k'.
your rī (—ri).

II. ENGLISH-HAIDA.

Skidegate Dialect.

(Note.—The words followed by a K. are Kaigani dialect.)

A.

above gī.
—— *it is,* ca ē′tsi.
to accompany g·āk'ā′it.
Acer tlk·ātlk (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
adam's apple k·agᴇ′n sku′tsē=lung bone.
adze qot'a′.
afternoon sᴇn tā′tsera gā′ista.
again ī′sᴇñ
alive qai′nʟñga.
all tlō′qan.
Alnus kā′ac (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
always wa gye′na.
Anas boschas tha K.
—— *clypeata* ʜit.
—— *histrionica* k·'ᴇ′cg'utk.
ancestor tlsta dē tsi′nga = long ago my grandfather.
ankle gy'atl t'amᴇ′l = leg knuckle.
another k·a′lrō.
Anser tlgyitgū′n.
antlers nacā′ñrē.

antlers, many pronged, g'at g·oa'qa gig·'ā'ñrai = deer's manifold antlers.
anus k'asē'.
apparel, wearing, gya.
apron of woman dlgyītgyitlgya (dl t'ā'tsē).
apron for dances k·'antsētlqā'gya (gya = wearing apparel).
Arctostaphylus uva ursi dinq (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
arm below elbow ʜi, ʜiā'i.
—— *above elbow* ʜi tlrī.
armor, wooden, for breast, tcidlkit.
—— —— *for belly,* k·'antsētlqā'gya (see *apron*).
—— *made of sea lion skin,* k·'ēt'ī't (k·'ēt = sea-lion).
armpits sk·ut.
Arnica cordifolia ʜit hauā'c.
arrow, with bone or metal point, ts'ī'talᴇñ.
—— *blunt, for birds,* k·'u'ñgal.
ashes dltᴇ'tlqēt.
aunt (mother's sister) āo = mother.
—— (father's sister) sk·āñ.
aurora g·ōt qalga dā'nt'atl.
axe gyētl dsāō.

B.

baby k·ā'qa (see *weak*).
back skuā'ē, gyi'ñguta.
—— *vertebra* gyi'ñguta sku'tse = backbone.
—— *of house* na stlᴇñ = house back.
—— *of hand* sl'ō'na.
bad dā(rañga).
bald head skaqā's.
ball, to play at, gūt kitl k'a'tsu.
—— *played with seal meat,* qōt at gūt kitl k'a'tsu.
bark of Tsuga ʜi; hā'i K.
—— *of other trees* k·'ō'tsē.
basket, small, for berries, k·'ā'itas.
—— *large, for berries,* k·'ē'gū.
basket qin.
bat k·'ātltsōqa'la.
baton of shaman t'ask·'.
beach gyitl.
bear, black, tān.
—— *grizzly,* qō'ots (borrowed from Tlingit).
—— *polar,* ha'l'un.
beard sk·'ē'ōrē(n).
beaver ts'ᴇñ.
bed thēidā'n = sleep instrument.
beetle :hansk·ea'l K. = face dirt.
before this ku'nrasta.
belly tātl.
belt (dl)dsgā'wa K.
berry g·ān(ᴀ); hān(ᴀ) K.
—— *cranberries* dlā'ē.
—— *dried,* g·an hi'l g·ata.
—— *boiled,* g·an galᴇ'nsᴇl.
birch attā'ri (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
bird qēt'ē't.
—— *a bird with red wings* s:hā'ltset K.
black (tl)k·ātl, (s)k·ātl.
black cod sk·il.
bladder k'ōg·ᴇ'n sk'an.
blanket gyā'atk.
—— *Chilkat,* nā'ʜin (borrowed from Tlingit).
Blennius sp. :haci'n K.
blood g·ā'i.
blue gō tlrātl.
blue jay tl'ᴇ'njūt.
body, the whole, tēā'nē.
to boil, gan; qoa'tlta.
boiled food galᴇ'usᴇln.
bone skū'tsē.
bow tlk·ē'it.
bowstring tlk·ē'it t'ā'tsē.
box g·ōta, dā'ota.
bracelet, copper, ʜalslgya'.
brain k·as'ᴇ'ntsᴇñ, k·atlᴇ'nts'ᴇñ.
to break down qu'ndata.
the sea breaks (heavily) g·ā'iu g·u'ñgᴇ (yū'ᴇn).

breast k·an.
brothers and sisters k·'ā'tlqa.
brother tā (said by sister).
elder brother guā'i (said by brother).
younger brother dā'(örᴇɴ) (said by brother).
second brother gūctnᴇñ k·atleqagas(?).
third brother gūct lā'na(?).
brother-in-law k·eā'= sister's husband (said by man).
—— tlᴇ'nara = sister's husband (said by sister).
Bubo Virginianus gutgunē'st K.
Buccinum ckᴇtsk' K.
bucket g·ā'na.
bush tlkyi'n(ra).
butterfly stlak·a'm.
buttocks k·'atltsō.
button blanket guñ la'ñgō gyā'atk.
by and by k'oā'i.

C.

calf of leg gy'ātl k·ā'u = leg muscle.
Caltha palustris nil gī tlᴇgᴇñ = medicine above swim.
canoe tlō'u.
Cardium Nutalli chilhiē'i K.
cat tō'us (Chinook).
cedar, yellow, c:hatlā'n K.
—— —— *young,* ts'ō gyīt'ē.
—— *blanket* lā'ʜial.
—— *bark, used for making mats,* gyīē't.
cedar root dlē'iñ.
Ceryle Halcyon k'ut'u'n K.
cheek, lower part of, ts'i'ta.
—— *upper part of,* k·'a'n ts'i'ta.
chief (nᴇñ)ētlqagida'.
—— *head-chief,* lā'na ā'ora = town mother.
child gyīt'(ē).
chin tlkā'ē.
Chiton tunicata c:hē'it K.
—— *Stelleri* t'a.
Circus Hudsonica dō:hatlāga' K. = catching bird(?).
cirrostratus k·uē'au.
cirrus iā'n tsē'tla (ā'n = cloud).
clams skā'ē, ky'ū.
clothing, to wash ——, tāda'n tsī'gyida.
cloud iān.
coat djit'i'skū.
red cod sk·ān.
small codfish s!ā'ētaē.
large codfish skā'ēnān.
cold quī'.
colored tlıātl.
—— *many,* aqā'i tlıā'tla.
Colymbus glacialis tatl.
come! (used with the imperative) hā'la!
the winter is coming tā'da g·i'lga.
cone of pine ctl'ack'ᴋ'māl.
to cook by means of heated stones sītl; gya'galañ.
copper plate t'ā'ō.
cormorant ky'ā'lau.
cotton wood tl'al.
Cottus sp. k·'āl.
—— —— tl'ā'ma.
cousin sk·āñ = father's sister's and mother's brother's daughter.
—— usqu'ñ = mother's brother's child.
—— lᴇra'n = father's sister's and mother's brother's son.

Mother's sister's child = brother.

Father's brother's son = brother. Elder or younger brother are used according as cousin is elder or younger than self.

crab k·'uct'ā'n.
crabapple k·ē'iq.
—— *tree* k·ē'yintl.
cranberry ta.
crane, and Gallinage Wilsoni, dᴇl (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
crazy dladlgua (see *land otter*).

crow k'ā'ltsᴇda.
crown of head tl'ᴇl k·ā'tsē.
to cry sk·ā'yētl.
to cut off (neck) (qil)k·'ē'tl.

D.

dagger k·'ā'otl.
to dance ʜiā'tl.
(shaman's) dance (sk·ā'g·at) wīkatsō.
dancing leggins gy'ātl gya = leg dancing ornament.
danger at sea c:hā'noakᴇn K.
daughter-in-law dzīrōnā'n.
dawn sᴇn gītlᴇñga (nō'kua).
day sᴇn.
—— *all day long* sᴇn sg·ā'sg·ō.
it is daylight k·ā'dēga.
dead g·'ōt'utl.
deer g·'at.
Delphinus Orca sk·ā'g·a; chān K. (see *shaman*).
dish k·ā'itla = wide open.
—— *carved on both sides* k·ā'itla k·ō'la = dish forehead.
dog qa.
dog fish k·'ā'qata.
dog salmon ck'ᴇk.
doll gyīt; gᴇdē's (children's language).
dolphin sk·ul; k·'āñ.
door gy'ū; stᴇñ.
—— *in heraldic column* gy'ū qa'l = door hole.
down (feathers) tᴇ'nrō; g·ᴇ'nrō.
dragon fly dē'gua t'ā'mā'i = sun louse K.; mā'mats'ikyē (borrowed from Tsimshian).
to drink qutl.
drum gā'udjau.
dry g·'ā'(ga).
duck qā'qa.
dusk aga'lgua.
dust, dirt, sk·ea'l.

E.

eagle g·ōt; :hōt K.
eagle black :hōt tlrātl K.
eagle gens gyītena'(c).
ear gyū.
opening of ear k·ā'tlē.
earth, ground, k·'uī' (see *island*); tlga.
earthquake tlga i'ldᴇñ.
east wind k·'a'ratsg·a.
to eat ta.
to eat together uā'ras.
ebb tide gyitlraʜi'tl.
edge of box clᴇñ.
upper edge of blanket sī'dᴇ.
egg k·ā'u.
lice eggs djāc.
elbow ʜī tsᴇguī' (ʜī = arm).
elk tci'cku.
Empetrum nigrum :hackā'wa.
to enter k·adl (see *to walk*).
ermine tlᴇk·, tlqa.
evening sᴇn ʜi.
excrements kwā'rau.
eye qa'ñg(ē).
eyebrow skiā'tsē.
eyelashes qa'ñga dlt'a gutcē.
eyelid qa'ñga g ā'al = eyelid.

F.

face qañg(a).
fall tcā'nut k·arat (see *winter*).
to fall over k·'ā.
to fall from ēsg·oē'.
far dzīñga.
fat tlk·ō'na.
father (said by man) k·uñ.
—— (said by woman) qāt.
father-in-law k·ō'nē (see *son-in-law*).
fathom ʜī rōdlagī't (ʜī = arm).
—— *half,* dī ky'ē'ōrē dlōg·ē'ta = my median line of body fathom.
—— (measure from left shoulder to top of finger of right hand) sk·al dlō (sk·al = shoulder).

feathers, pubis, g·ā'u.
female sexual organs kā'u; tsō'u (children's language).
a certain festival gyā'ist.
—— —— gag'uē'ta.
to fight rā'ʜitla.
—— *together* gūtg·an ıā'ʜitla.
figure k·'ēda.
finger sl k·'a'ñẹ = hand finger.
—— *first,* sli k'uā'ns (sli = hand).
—— *second,* yak·'olā'na.
—— *third,* qēiġā'us = weak.
—— *fourth,* sli ġō'uts (sli = hand).
fire-drill tlkiā'k'ē.
fireplace k·aē'qēt.
firewood ts'ā'nō.
fish tcitl.
—— *fresh-water,* tc'ē'na.
—— *salt-water,* sk·'ā'tlan.
fish knife tā'g·atsō.
fish line of kelp, tlgai.
fish otter ts'ōwu'lᴇk'.
fish roe tcā'ē.
fish trap, bottle-shaped, sk'aıā'ō.
fish trap, large, gyī'rau.
flat g·ā.
flesh gyērī'.
fleshy gyēıā'ulgō'u.
flood tide ġā'etliʜit.
fly dē'idᴇn.
fog iā'n(ᴇñga).
food ga ta'.
foot st'ā'ē.
footprint st'a sᴇl.
forehead k·ul.
forenoon sᴇngā'ē.
fox naga'tsē (borrowed from Tlingit).
frame tlk·a.
my friend ta'quē.
frost g·alᴇ'ñgudatl.
to fry citl.
—— *on stones* citl g·uta' = fry stone.
Fucus vesiculosus t'al (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
fur seal k·'oā'n.

G.

gambling sticks sᴇn.
to give ē'ista.
to go k·a, i'sk·as, gᴇnd'aʜi't (?).
let us go hā'la d'ā'lᴇñ gᴇnd'aʜi't s'añ.
good lā.
grandchild t'agyᴇ'n.
grandfather tcin.
grandmother nān.
grass k·'an.
gravel sqat'ᴇ'ldañ.
green gan tlratl = yellow; g·ōtlratl = blue.
greenstone (jadeite) dlk·ā tlō'u.
gull ck·'in.
gums ts'ᴇñ k·'ul = teeth skin.
gun dzī'gū.
Gyins: hā'noa (the wife of Nenkyilstlas).

H.

Haida qā'eda.
hair k·as k·'ē'tl = head hair.
—— *dress of shaman* gyiētl.
half yā'kō.
—— *moon* k·uñ ġēnᴇroā'ē.
halibut qā'kō, :hāk' K.
halloh! ai'diñga!
hand sli, slā'ē.
Harelda glacialis ā'ñgıñgē.
harpoon k·'ā.
—— *line* k·'ā tl'ā'tsē.
point of salmon harpoon k'udᴇ'nkyīl.
hat dā'dzᴇñ.
—— *ring* dā'dzᴇñ ski'lga.
he la.
head k·'ā'tsē.
—— *ring of red cedar bark* tᴇntlgyik·a'ldᴇ.
to hear gū'dᴇñ.
heart tēk'ō'gō.
her la.
heels st'a kōsē' (st'a = foot).

to help etlwa.
heraldic column gyā'rañ = standing upright.
herring ī'nañ.
it is high water skuā'ga (rilgᴇn).
hips k·ātlu'l skū'tsē (skū'tsē=bone).
hook, for fishing halibut, tā'ō.
iron hook stīl tā'ō.
hole qal.
hoof of deer g·'āt st'ā'gun (st'a = foot).
horizon k·uēʜdzi'nrau.
horn (see *antlers*).
horse gyūdā'n (Chinook).
house nᴀ.
—— *dug out part in centre of,* dā'a.
—— *front* na qañ = house face.
humming-bird qᴇktgyīā' (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
hungry k·'oē'ta.
husband tlāl.

I.

I dē(a), tlā'(a).
ice g·al(ᴇa).
indeed? ōdja?
Indian of the interior ts'ak's.
inside k·ā'tlēk, nā'gust K.
instrument tᴀn.
interstices between fingers sli ıātk·asē'.
intestines k'ēs.
invitation to autumnal festival la'gyinem.
iron ire'ts.
island guā'ē.

K.

K·atlᴇnsk·u'n, name of a place.
kelp tlk·ıā'ma.
—— *cake* qā'eda gu'lra = Haida tobacco.
kettle ck·'ᴇl.
—— *wooden boiler,* ck'ᴇl gan.
—— *wooden,* tā'utaqai; sk'a'lgal.
kidney tcā'ē.
to kill tē'aqan.
knee k·'ulō'.
—— *pan* k·'ulō k·ārāñ.
—— *joint* gyal k·uld'ᴇ'ñgō = leg joint.
knife sqā'u.
—— *made of shell* taqā'ō.
to know u'nsēda.
I do not know ā'ya.
knuckle d'amᴇ'l.
Kushtaka (otter people) gᴇgyiī't K.

L.

lake sū.
Lā'nas = the town, place near Rose Point.
lance tcea'tl.
land tlga.
land otter sdlgū.
large yū'an.
to laugh k'ā.
leaf dlk·'a'ñgual.
Ledum palustre hi'lk·agen K. = mouse neck.
left hand slā'nēgi slā'ē.
leg, above knee, thil.
—— *below knee,* gy'ātl.
dancing leggins gy'ā'tlgya = leg wearing apparel.
leg of table tlga.
lid of box tā'uta k·ā'al = box lid.
to lie k·'ōrat, kētlʜidā'n.
liar k·'ōrat lıā'era = lie master.
lightning sqēt g·āuldañ.
to like stat'ᴇ'l.
Lina sp. djuwēt'amā'ē.
line tl'ā'tsē.
lip, upper, h'ō'tsēqun.
—— *lower,* k'ō'uta.
liver tētl'ᴇlkul.
lobe of ear gyū st'ā'ē = ear foot.
long sk·'a, dziñ.
—— *ago* tlsta.
loose cuvā'c.

lost gā'u.
louse t'am.
low water tsē'qoa.
lungs k·ā'genskē'ga (see *adam's apple*).
Lupinus gᴇ'ndō.
Lycopodium clavatum g·'at dldsgā'-wa = deer belt.
lynx tlgyan dā'udjā'ē (tlgyan = forest).

M.

to make da, gyiñ, g·ōtlra.
man ē'tliñga, k·'ᴇl.
—— ga; for instance, k·'cā'la ga = raven gens man.
many skō'l (only referring to men).
—— k·cā'n (referring to any thing including men).
—— yū'an (referring to any thing including men).
martin k·'ō'u.
mask nītca'ñgō.
master lrā'ēra.
mat lgūc.
meat gyērī'.
median line of body ky'ēō'rē.
medicine ʜil.
midnight g·al yā'kō.
mind gū'dᴇñ.
mine tēnᴇ'ñga; nā'ra.
moccasin st'ā tlk'u'nkyē (st'ā = foot).
moon k·'uñ.
—— *new*, k·'uñ ihai'lōgᴇn.
—— *first crescent*, k·'uñ k·ēqatlg·a = the moon opens his eyes.
—— *last crescent*, k·'uñ ihailōda'l-gᴇn.
—— *begins to be full* k·'uñ g'aisgō-gi'lga.
—— *is shining* k·'uñdlan.
more ī'sᴇñ.
morning sᴇn aē'qᴇn.
mortar dā'rō.
mosquito ts'era'ltᴇquan.
mother ā'ō.
mother-in-law dzīrōnā'n (see *daughter-in-law*).
mountain t'ē'is; tldērā'u.
—— *goat* ky'i'ñrē.
—— *sheep* mat' (borrowed from Tsimshian).
mouse ka'gan.
—— tsīgul ā'ora (ā'ora = mother).
mouth qētl'ē'.
mud tcān.
muscle k·ā'u.
Mytilus edulis :hal K.

N.

Na ēku'n, Rose Point.
nail sli g'u'n = hand nail.
naked k·oonā'nō.
nape ts'ē'kyē.
navel sgil.
near ā'qan.
neck qil.
needle sln.
nephew (man calls his sister's child) nād.
—— (man calls his brother's child) gyit.
—— (woman calls her brother's child) usqu'ñ.
—— (woman calls her sister's child) gyīt.
net a'qat.
night g·āl.
—— *it is*, g·ā'lga.
nipples tl'ᴇ'nwai.
no gaū'anō.
Nontlem qālēta'.
noon sᴇn lā'tsēra.
north wind k·'āʜustē' ga, qu'stcga.
nose kun.
nostril kuntsqul.
not gᴇm.
notch of arrow stlqu' tsē.
now (a)ūwia't.

O.

oak tcā'nañ.
oar ādl dzi'nda = paddle long.
ocean sī.
œsophagus tl'ᴇlqō'ts'ᴇl.
Oidemia perspicillata c'i'ndᴇtl K.
Oidemia sp. gā'oq K.
olachen cā'u.
old k·'ā'i.
—— *clothing* k·'u'lzu.
—— *man* nᴇn k·'ā'ia.
on gūd.
—— *top of* u'nsē, gī.
one squn, sqa'sgō, sqoā'nsᴇñ.
open k·a.
to open one's eyes k·ē'qatlg·a.
another one gyina k·'a'lrō.
outside :hadōsi K.
owl, white, k'āk' (borrowed from Tlingit) K.

P.

paddle ādl.
to paint k'ōtlā'nō.
red paint for face (qañ) mā'tsa.
black paint for face (qañ) k·'ā'tsa.
palate sē'iñgatsē.
palm of hand sli k·ā'rān (sli = hand).
Parmelia k'āltsdēlē'dja.
partridge, ptarmigan; ck·ā'u.
Parus tatldā'nᴇgyēt.
penis tsī'tsī.
people qā'ēdqa.
perforation of nose kun qal = nose hole.
—— *of ear* gyū qal = ear hole.
pestle dā'raō ; dā'raō ts'ᴇñ.
petticoat cā'ata lgyēgyiā'qa = woman's petticoat.
pile of fuel ts'ā'nō sqa.
pillar, erected in commemoration of deceased, qāt.
pipe qē'tlᴇñ g·ā'eudā'ō = mouth smoke box.
to piss tsē'gᴇñ.
plant of foot st'a k·ara'n (st'a = foot).
poker kyitsqᴇla'ñgō.
Polygonatum ct'ā'u hā'na = witchcraft berry.
porcupine :hatlgᴇts (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
porpoise sk·ul.
to possess (tla) da, k·ē'i, (dē) ran.
post, in house, k·'ōtg·a'ñgō.
potlatch wā'tlqatl.
pregnant, she is, l tātl gyīt'ē' (gyīt'ē' = child, l tātl = her belly).
puffin k·oqᴇ'n ; k·oana' K.
pupil of eye qa'ñgē l tān karē'i.

Q.

Qoia g·a'ndla = Raven water, a river on Queen Charlotte Islands.
quartz tlk·a k·'ā'tsē (tlk·a = stone).
quiver ts'ītalᴇ'ñ darā'ō = arrow box.

R.

rafter ts'ān sk'ā'gēt.
rain dādl.
rainbow tā'wᴇl.
rain wind (generally east) qē'u.
raspberry hān gyit'ē' = berry small.
rattle, raven, sīsa'.
—— *shaman's,* dlkum hitaga'ñgō.
—— *puffin beak's,* tlᴇ hitaga'ñgō.
—— *skull-shaped,* k·'ēl hitaga'ñgō.
raven qoia' ; yētl (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
—— *gens* k·'oā'la(c).
to recover from sickness ñgā'istl ; lgila.
red sqēt.
reed k·'ān tl'akida' = grass wide.
rib qē'wē.
Ribes hā'iwa (borrowed from Tlingit) K. ; k·'ētguā'n K.

ridge of house, formed by a long board, tlgī'tlai.
—— *of upper part of ear* gyu tlk·un = ear ridge.
—— *of nose* kun tlk·un = nose ridge.
right, it is all right, tᴇ'mqᴇn.
—— *hand* sqōlgyīlā'nā.
river k·ā'ura.
to roast fish dlgū.
roof na ū'na = top of house.
—— *inside of,* na k·arā'n.
rope of spruce roots k·u'ntla.
—— *of cedarbark* k·oa'ē.
—— *around food box* tāut īya'ñgrē.
rotten s·ā'ga ; gu'nraga.
round g·ā·s. g·ē (see *full moon*).
Rubus, Vaccinium uliginosum, han hā'ulas = berry sweet.
to run k·ā'ʜit.

S.

saliva tl'an.
salmon tcīn.
—— *a small species,* c:hoā'gank K.
—— *hooknose,* tāi.
—— *humpback,* ts'īt'ā'n.
—— *white,* tā'un.
—— *smoke-house for,* tā'na nā'i.
—— *weir,* ʜiā'i (the centre occupied by the fish trap *gyirau*).
—— *berry* sk·ā'uran.
salt tā'ñga g·ā'ga = dry sea.
sand tās.
Saxidromus squalidus ky'ū.
scalp k·ās'ᴇ'l.
scared tlquā'k·a.
scraper of deer bone gyitsratē'skō.
scrotum k·'utlē k·'al = testicle skin.
sea tā'ñga.
—— *far out into the,* sīakō.
seal qōt (borrowed from Tsimshian).
sea lion k·ēt, k·āē.
—— *hat* sqā'tsē dadzᴇñ.
—— *armor made of the skin of,* k·'ōg·agya'.
sea otter k·ō'u ((?) see *martin*).
to see k·iñ, k·ea'ñ.
self tlōo, ā'gᴇn.
septum kun tᴇ'ñgarē.
to sew tl'ᴇl, gya tl'ᴇl.
shaman sk·ā'g·a.
shark k·'āt ; k·'ā'qata ā'ora = dog-fish mother.
she la.
sheath of dagger k·'āotl k·'al = dagger skin.
shells, burned and chewed with tobacco, guā'ga.
ship k·'ē'i.
short k·'ōdzā'ō.
shoulder sk·al.
sick st'ē.
sinew qā'ē.
to sing sqalā'ñ, k'atsā'ō.
sister, djās (said by brother).
sister-in-law tlᴇ'nara (brother's wife, said by brother and *vice versa*).
—— tsi'ñga (brother's wife, said by sister and *vice versa*).
to sit k·'aū'ō.
skate sqā'na.
skin k·'al.
skull k·a skū'tsē = head bone.
sky k·oiē' k·arā'n.
slate tlk·a s'ā'ga = stone rotten (soft).
slave qaldᴇ'ñga.
to sleep t'ēi.
sleep tlk·'ag·a.
sling tsawu'ñ.
small gāu gᴇ'tsō.
to smell sku'ngudᴇñ.
smoke g·ā'ēu ; gyinē'it.
—— *hole* gyinadā'i.
snail ct'ᴇ'la K.
snake si'ga.
snipe ayahī'a.
snow d'arā'ō.
son-in-law k·ō'nē.
soot k·ayū'cian.
soul catcher k·'angitlkigya = breast dancing ornament.

berry soup ac.
to speak kyētlkul.
—— *to somebody* sō′ta.
spear shaft kīt′ū′.
to throw spear kīt.
sparrow hawk skyā′mskun.
Spermophylus Parryi tsatlk‘.
spider k·’utlsiā′ñ.
spike of pine giā′.
spoon slā′gul.
large spoon slā′gul g·aniā′lō, slā′gul g·anᴇ′l.
spring k·’in rad, k·’in rē′da (k·’in = summer).
sprout ck·’ā′u K.
squall t’ā′tsō k·ōē′wē (t’ā′tsō = wind).
squid nū K.
squirrel da′sqa ; gᴇtltsā′k K.
to squirt yi′ltᴇñ.
to stand gyā′rañ.
star k·’ē′itsāō.
shooting star k·’ē′itsāo kwā′rau = star excrement.
starfish sk·’ā′am.
to steal k·’ō′tlta.
stomach gy’ē′tsē.
stone tlk·a, g·ōta′.
storehouse in forest gya′c halā′ñ.
storm qastl.
story k·’ā′ēg·añ.
strawberry hil dāhā′ñ.
street gy’ū.
strings for tying up blanket, handle, (dl)t’ā′ts(ē).
strong dakuya′.
stump of tree, a fallen trunk, k·’ā′qō.
summer k·’in, k·’in yā′kō.
sun dzidlg·oē.
suspensor of dagger k·’ā′otl t’ā′ts.
swan titl’u′n.
sweet hā′ulas.
sweetheart k·’atai′ra.
to swim (bird, wood) tlᴇgᴇ′ñ.

T.

table gata dā′n = it eat instrument.
tail of bird, whale, ky’ī′ta, sky’ēā′ō.
—— *of fish* st’ā′i = foot.
to talk kyētlkul.
talker kyētlkul lrā′era = talking master.
tattooing gyīda′.
temples near eyebrow skya′ts qōta.
—— —— *tragus* gye′lsᴇntā′rē.
testicles k·’utlē′.
there ēs’.
therefore k·’a′gan.
thicket tlkyan ts’īgᴇ′nga yū′an.
thief k·ōtlta lrā′era = steal master.
thing gyi′na.
thirsty k·’ādō.
thorn dā′a, dā′ñga.
thread gy’ētlā′ō.
to throw with stones tsā wa′ñga (see *sling*).
thumb slī k’usē′.
thunder hē′lañ ; kaqē′gᴇl.
tide koā′kia′.
the tide turns koa′tlk·at ltā′ra.
Tlk·āgilt = *Stone beach;* Skidegate.
toad tlkyan k’ōst’ān = forest crab.
tobacco gul.
toes st’ā k·’a′ñgē = foot finger.
to-morrow dā′rgatl.
tongue t’ā′ñgᴇl.
tongs, for taking stones out of fire, tlk·a tsō = stone tongues.
too g·ē′dᴇñ.
tooth dz’ᴇñ.
molar tooth dz’ᴇñ k·ā′tsk·ul.
town lā′na.
tree k·ēt, k·ā′ē.
trout tā′tl’at.
twice stiñgᴇn.
twins ntsā′ta qē′g·a stiñ.

U.

Ulva k·’ātc.
uncle (father's brother) k·uñ = father.

uncle (mother's brother) k·ā.
unmarried man dlʜiān.
—— *woman* sk'ᴇñ k·a'nda.

V.

Vaccinium ovalifolium tltān
—— *Vitis Idaea* sk·ā'uran gyīt'ē' = salmon berry small.
valley tl'ā'dan.
vein g·ā'i nsg·erē' = blood vein.
Veratrum guā'iga K.
Viburnum acerifolium tlā'ē K.

W.

to walk k·a.
wall na ta gul = house side.
warm ky'ē'ina.
warp qā'i.
warrior gutl'i'ᴇta.
—— rā'ʜitlta lrā'era = fighting master.
to wash tlñ.
—— *one's hands* sltlā'nᴇñ.
wasp sral, c:hal K.
water g·andl.
wave g·ā'ēu.
we ētl, t'alᴇ'ñgua.
weak k·āqa(ga').
weft k·'ōdā'i.
wet ʀᴇdzī'gʟñ.
whale kūn.
—— *fabulous, with five fins,* wāsk·.
what gōsu, gōg'us.
where gyīnū'.
whistle sk·ā'na.
white g·'ā'da.
—— *man* irē'ts qā'ētra = iron man.
—— —— k·'ᴇl g·adā'a = man white.
who gyī'stō.
why gō'gusg·anō, g·ā'tlᴇntlā'ō.
wide tlak·id '.
wife dj'ā.
wind tātsā'ō.
—— *seaward,* tatsā'ō sg·a.
—— *catpaw,* tatsā'ō sk·ada'lga.
—— *landward,* tatsā'ōgītl.
—— *increasing in strength* t'atsē'lga.
wing ʜē'i; st'ā'rūn.
winter tā'da; sʟñ gā'rat.
to wish stā'tᴇl.
witchcraft ct'ā'u K.
wolf gō'utc; hō'utc (borrowed from Tlingit) K.
woman dj'ā'ata.
woodpecker clōtsg·adā'ñ.
wood tlkyān.
worm cik; sk·ā'ra.
wrist ʜāē k·'ōld'ᴇ'ñgō = arm joint.

Y.

year tā'da (see *winter*).
yellow g'an tlratl.
yes â; ō; ā'ñga.
yesterday dā'rgatl tlgā'ē.
day before yesterday sta g·al stiñ·ge'lgen = two nights ago.
you, pl. dalᴇ'ñ.
young gyī'tg·ē; ītᴇ'ʀᴇn.

III. ENGLISH-TSIMSHIAN.

A.

above lᴇqa'.
to accompany stōl.
across tsag·a'.
adam's apple siā'uq.
adze of stone tasᴇʀ ᴇm lâp = adze of stone.
to adopt sᴇwulā'isk = make relative.
afraid bas, *pl.* lᴇbas.
afternoon tla dā'otl gyā'muk.

again tla(1)gyik(2) = perfect sense (1) then (2).
against tqal.
—— (*hostile*) lᴇbi'lt.
ago, a few days, g'ᴇ'rdata.
—— *a few weeks,* gyetqā'utq.
—— *a year, long ago,* gye k'â'otl (k'â'otl = year).
—— *long,* tlā'gyigyat.
air ha.
all tqa'nē.
to allow ᴇnâoq (see *to consent*).
I allow him to come ᴇnâ'yō dᴇm k·ā'ēdᴇks.
also dī.
always tlā'wula.
ancestor, female, nag·an tsē'esk·um (see *grandmother*).
—— *male,* nag·an yētk·um (see *grandfather*).
and (connecting nouns, etc.) dītl, g·antl.
—— (before words designating human beings) dīs, g·ans.
—— (connecting sentences) ada.
angry tlō'ontē.
animal iē'ts'ᴇsk.
ankle hᴇmho'm.
to answer dīlᴇmaqtl.
antlers qaqā'ns.
arm an'o'n.
—— *above elbow* lᴇbᴇo'n.
armor of elk skin k·'ᴇtlā'n.
to arrive batsk.
arrow hāuā'l.
—— *bird arrow,* t'ē'es.
to ascend a river g·'a'la.
to ascend a mountain maqtl.
ashes ōᴇ'nᴇk·sᴇk·.
ashore tsᴇ'rᴇn.
to ask kᴇrᴇ'taq.
Asuwā'lgyat (a fabulous monster belonging to the gens K·anha'da, *raven*) gyat = person.
at (referring to distant objects) ga, gasga.
at (referring to present objects) da.
aunt (mother's sister) = mother.
——(mother's brother's wife) nᴇktā'.
—— (father's brother's wife) nâ'os.
autumn ksō'ot.
axe, European, gyēgyâ'otk = lengthwise fastened.
—— *stone,* dahᴇ'rᴇs.

B.

baby, male, gyinē'es.
—— *female,* wok·'ā'uts = without labret.
back k·'â'o.
backward gyi'lᴇks.
bad hada'q.
to bail ts'ē'yuk.
bailer ha(1)ts'ē'yuksa(2) = instrument (1) bailing (2).
bark, match, gyīmst.
basket, for berries, iū'sᴇl.
——*for fish,* tsᴇlā'.
—— *of cedarbark, for carrying household goods when traveling,* dō'otlk.
to be nē, nēnē'.
bear, black, o'l.
—— *grizzly,* mᴇdī'ek.
——*fabulous (?) white,* mᴇs'o'l.
—— *gens,* gyispotuwᴇ'da.
beard ēmq.
to beat time k·ansp'a'.
beaver sts'âl.
because (a)wul.
bed halēlā'tlk.
bee ap (borrowed from Tinne).
beforehand gu'ldᴇm.
behold! rakstanā'!
belly bᴇn.
to belong to wāld.
below gyēek.
berries, dried, gᴇnē'gu (atl).
Bilqula Lalgyimē'l.
bird ts'ō'wots.

bird, all flying animals, lᴇpā'yeky.
black t'ō'otsk.
—— *paint for face* qtō'ots.
blackberries mā'e.
blanket gus.
—— *white,* gus mâks.
—— *sea otter,* gus ptlōn.
—— *Chilcat,* gus(1)naikyī'm(2) gyā'muk(3) = blanket (1) sun (3); naikyim, evidently from na'qin, Tlingit.
blind sū'ᴇns.
blood itlē'.
blue kuskua'sk.
boards in bottom of canoe ktsâ'oks.
bone sâ'yup.
book sā'wuns.
boom t'uksitlē'.
boots ts'â'oqs (see *foot*).
on both sides laqaq.
bow hāukta'k.
—— *of canoe* gyits'â'iq.
bowstring tē'es.
box for food k·alᴇi'rᴇnk·.
—— *for blankets* qpē'is.
boy wōmtlk.
brain wunᴇg·ā'us (see *head*).
branch anē'is, *pl.* ananē'is.
—— *of river* lōts'ār.
—— —— ts'ā'tlē.
bread anā'ē.
breast k·ā'yek·.
breath ksᴇnātlk.
bridge tsaja(1)k·anē'qs = across (1).
to bring da k·â'edᴇks (da = at, k·â'edᴇks = to come).
broom had'ō'osk = instrument sweeping.
brother (called by brother) weky.
—— (called by sister) tlᴇ'mktē.
brother-in-law (husband's brother) tlg·ᴇgâ'otks.
—— (wife's brother) tlg·uag·atlā'm.
brown srloqlâ'p (see *stone*).
bucket ō'mtlᴇlt.
bullhead (a fish) g·'ayē'et.
burial of shaman in house or cave ts'ᴇm lâp = in rock.
burning the dead mālk.
—— —— *payment for,* qmālg'ᴇck = receive for being burned.
to burn (v. n.) gua lak (see *fire*).
—— *burning leggings,* Gualgaba'qs (traditional name).
to bury lō an'o'n = into hand.
bush species (?) qtlätl.
by and by hāuwē'nē.
—— tladzᴇ.

C.

calf of leg hâ'ᴇnᴇr.
to call hō'otk, *pl.* hukhō'otk.
—— *I call his name,* nsuwā'tkada (see *name*).
calm gyaks.
to camp gyâ.
to move camp lâyek.
cane, walking, k·ā'at.
cannibal qgyat = eat people (Olala).
canoe qsâ.
Haida canoe qsâ ᴇm Haida.
canoe moves stern foremost läntk.
cañon ts'alā'sᴇr.
cape k·ā'maks.
carriage ts'e'ktsik (Chinook).
to carry into ts'ᴇlᴇ'm(1)ga(2) = into (1) at (2).
—— *in flying* tikyepā'ik (see *to fly*).
to carve gyetlk, *pl.* gyetlgyetlk.
carving knife hagyetla' = instrument carving.
cat tō'us (Chinook).
to catch salmon spaqtl.
causative — ᴇn.
—— — g·an.
cataract ts'ᴇm(1)hō'otseq(2) = in (1) ? (2).
cedar g·ᴇlā'r, *pl.* g·ᴇlā'r.
—— *bark* hat'ā'l.
a certain g'âlt.
chair halī'd'a (d'a = to sit, ha = instrument).

channel, narrow strait, mE'qtla.
cheek, lower part, wundâ'.
—— *upper part,* teā'l.
cherry g·'Elā'mst.
to chew k·'ā'un.
chief sEm'â'yit.
child tlguâ'mElk, *pl.* k'apEtgErEtlk.
—— *of chief* tlguwā'lksek.
chin tqlakwak (kwaq = lip).
clams ts'āq.
to close one's eyes ts'ē'ep.
cloud, overcast sky, sa.
—— *cirrus,* wukts'E'n.
club, war-club, k·auwā'i.
coat kōtā's.
cold, to feel, qkua'tko.
to come k·â'edEks.
—— *from* wātk, *pl.* amiā'an (see *from*).
—— *down* kwānt.
common things skEtg Em gâ.
company nā'tatl, *pl.* natā'tltatl.
to consent Enâ'oq.
to continue tlāwula wāl = always do.
—— tlāwula hāu = always say.
copper plate haya'tsk.
cormorant k·ag·ā'.
corner amō'.
—— *of house* amō's.
council lEsā'osk, wulg·ak·â'st.
—— *combined with feast* g'ElEgā'-yetl.
councilman (next to chief in rank) lEgagī'gyat (gyat = person).
country k·a'lts'apt (see *town*).
cover of anything ât.
cow mEsmō'os (Chinook).
crab k·Elmâ's.
crabapple mâlkst.
crane k·'asqâ'os.
crest (*of gens*) ts'apk (see *town, people*).
crow k·'auqā'n.
crown of head mEsEmā'.
to cry wihā'ut = great say, *pl.* bâk.
—— *for sorrow* t'â'oqtlk Em bâk.
cup haa'ks = drink instrument.
to cut k·'ōts, *pl.* k·'ask·'ōts.
to cut off qtsak·â'ts.
to cut open pē'atl.

D.

day sa (see *cloud*).
dagger k·'ad Em dō'osk.
dance halā'it.
dancing blanket gus halā'it.
—— *hat* amhalā'it = used in dance.
—— *leggings* k·aqselks Em sī (sī = leg).
daughter = female child.
dead ts'ak.
deaf ts'ē'eq.
my dear! (*male*) nād.
—— (*female*) dātl.
deep tlEp.
deer wan, *pl.* wan.
—— *fawn* kusts'ē'ek.
to die ts'ak, *pl.* dEr.
dish, carved, k·ai'itl.
—— —— *large,* k·aiitlē'ek.
—— *of mountain sheep horn* stata's.
to do wāld.
dog has, *pl.* hasha's.
door lEksâ'q (see *out*).
double gu'lba.
downward tgyē.
—— ya'g·a.
down a river gī'si.
dreadful hats'E'ks (see *ugly*).
to dream ksuwE'q.
to dress up nō'otk, *pl.* k'anō'otk.
to drink aks, *pl.* laa'ks.
drum nâ'otl.
to dry (v. a.) sigE'r.
duck mē'Ek.
—— nanā'at.
—— *black,* amgyī'ek.
—— *spotted,* g·ag·awē'.
dust yō'op.

E.

eagle qskī'yek.
ear mō.

earhole ts'ᴇm mō = in ear.
perforation of ear nak·aga mō.
east gīsiya'sk (gī'si = down river).
easy ē'ᴇpᴇn.
to eat yā'wiqk, *pl.* tqâ'oqk.
—— *in compounds*, q —.
—— *something* gap.
—— *up* tsātlt.
egg tlgᴇma't.
elbow sk·ā'nēis.
(*person*) *elder than self* sē'elgyat (gyat = person).
elderberry bush sk·an lâ'ots (k·an = tree, lâ'ots = elderberry).
elderberry lâ'ots.
elk siâ'n.
to elope da (see *with*).
to enter ts'ē'en, *pl.* lam ts'aq.
European k·'amksī'oa (borrowed from Hedltsuk?).
evening skī'yetlaks.
eye wul'ᴇ'l.
eyebrow lᴇgyī'l.
eyelashes nâ'mᴇl.
eyelid, lower, sk·ā'ul.
—— *upper*, lᴇqaâ'l.

F.

face ts'al, *pl.* k·ats'altsa'l.
to fall k·ā'ina, *pl.* lē'ina ; sa(1) k·ā'-in(2) = suddenly(1) to fall(2).
far t'a, *pl.* t'ad'a'.
—— warait'a'.
to fasten dsē'ep.
—— *to* dsē'ep tqal (= against).
fat (n.) yā'i.
father nᴇguā't.
—— *address*, ā'bō.
father-in-law tlāms.
fathom g·ā'it.
—— *half fathom* k·'ā'yek = breast.
—— (left elbow to tip of finger of right hand) disk·a'nēis (see *elbow*).
fear bast.
feathers lī.
to fell (a tree) k·'ōtstl (k·an).
female (only referring to human beings) ksᴇm —.
few abō'o.
to fight wuldō'yitk.
—— *with fists* dal.
fin of fish nᴇk·auwā'i (see *paddle*).
—— *Delphinus Orca* nē'iq.
to find, to reach, to receive, wa.
finger kuts'ō'atl.
—— *first*, hats'ē'ek·.
—— *second*, ksin'ā'k·.
—— *third*, hastā'leks.
—— *fourth*, tlgō'uskai.
to finish g·ā'ōdē, g·ag·ā'ōdē.
fire lak.
—— *is burning* gua'lak.
—— *to start fire* sᴇgua'lga lak (sᴇ = to make).
fire drill tkī'en.
—— —— *stick of*, nᴇ sī'ētkī'en = foot of fire drill.
fireplace ts'ᴇm la'k = in fire.
fish lōwᴇ'lᴇm(1)ts'ᴇm(2)aks(3) = in(2) water(3).
fish hook t'ā'wil.
flag (*European*) atlo'm(1)gyamuk (2) = sail(1) sun(2).
flanks sitlk.
flat tga, *pl.* d'aqtqa.
Flatheads d'aqtqa = the flat ones.
flounder daqs.
flower mᴇtsaqalā'i.
to fly kyᴇpā'ek.
fog yē'en.
to follow yā'ak.
food wunē'ia.
foolish mᴇwa'tsa (wa'tsa = land otter).
foot sī (Nass : sā'ē) tsâ'oqs (see *plant*).
forehead wâpq.
forenoon serliaqs.
fork hayā'wiqk = instrument eat.
fox naratsē' (borrowed).

friend nᴇsē′bansk.
frightened bas.
fringes on upper part of blanket for tying it t'â.
fringes on pants, etc., hatlâ′.
from wātk (see *to take from*).
fruit, species(?) ksī′u.

G.

gambling with sticks qsᴇn.
—— *sticks* qsᴇn sâ′yup = gambling bone.
—— —— *the trumps, sticks without marks*, g·ā′ē.
—— —— *marked with three rings* ksī, tsᴇrda′m.
—— —— *marked with three rings, the central one broken at one side*, k·'o′dsiqt.
(*to gamble with sticks*): *shuffling and dealing out*, sā′ritsū.
—— —— —— *to choose one stick*, gū′sᴇn.
gens ptēq.
to get a "douceur" gyiā′iq.
ghost bä′laq, *pl.* bilbä′laq.
gills k·'ā′usq.
girl tlgua hanā′aq = little woman; wōk·'ā′uts = without labret.
to give gyᴇnā′m, *pl.* gyengyenā′m.
—— *food* gyī′ᴇn.
glabella lō spᴇq lᴇgyī′l (lᴇgyī′l = eyebrow).
glacier s'iâ′n.
glad lō(1)ama(2)k·â′ot(3) = in(1) good(2)heart(3), *pl.* lō amā′m k·ak·â′ot.
to go k·â.
—— *go!* ndâ! *pl.* ndâ′sᴇm.
to go into a boat lō′k·ᴇm (lō = into).
—— *on a road* yāk, *pl.* līyā′k (see *to follow*).
—— *out of house* ksᴇr = out.
god sᴇmâ′yit kᴇ laqa′ = chief above.
good ām, *pl.* amā′m.
goose, black, hā′aq.
—— *white*, tlē′wun.
grandchild tluktā′ayen.
grandfather niya′.
grandmother nts'ē′etsō.
grass kᴇyâ′qt.
great wī, *pl.* wud'a′.
great grandchild ō′olis.
great grandfather ō′olis.
grease of olachen k·'ā′wutsē.
grease bag of sea-lion guts sinek-sâ′sk.
green mᴇtlē′itk.
greenstone nᴇhâ′n.
grouse maqmē′eq.
to guess gō (see *to shoot*).
gull k·ak·ō′um.
gum for chewing skyan.
gun k·ap'ᴇla′.
guts k·al'â′os.

H.

Haida Haida.
hail ts'ats'a′.
hair lī.
—— *of scalp* k·ā′us (see *head*).
half qpī′yē.
—— *white* qpīmâ′k.
—— *cuttlefish (a crest)* qpīhatsalt.
halibut tqā′ō.
—— *hook* yig·a′.
haliotis pᴇlha′.
hammer, stone, tᴇqtl.
hand an'o′n.
—— *back of*, lᴇqsᴇnē′itl.
handle of paddle g·ā′lon.
to hang yaq, *pl.* yā′iaq.
happy lō ama k·â′ot (see *glad*).
Harelda glacialis an'anē′eq.
hat k·ā′it.
to hate lᴇlā′leqs.
hawk qtsō wotsk.
haws ralā′ms.
he, present, nē′ᴇdᴇt.
—— *absent*, nē′ᴇdga.

head t'ᴇmk·ā'us.
headdress amhalā'it = used in dance.
to hear nᴇqᴇnō'.
hearsay amᴇk·ad.
—— *in compounds*, — k·a.
heart k·â'ot.
heavy p'a'lᴇk·s.
heel tō'upqs.
Heiltsuk Wutsda'.
heraldic column ptsān.
here ya'gua.
hermaphrodite k·anâ'ts.
herring skᴇ.
—— *rake* ky'ᴇdᴇ'.
high gyeps.
hip t'ᴇmba'.
to hit, arrow, bātsk (see *arrive*).
homesick wīgyatk.
hoof of cow k·asᴇsī'm.
—— *of deer* k·anā'q.
horse gyudā'n (Chinook).
house wālp, *pl.* hōwā'lp.
—— *place in the rear of the*, stō'op'ᴇl.
humming-bird ts'ᴇ'pts'ᴇp.
hungry k'tē, *pl.* luk'tē.
to hurt sg·ā'yigs.
husband naks.

I.

I nᴋ'riō.
ice t'ā'ō.
in ts'ᴇm.
—— ts'ᴇlᴇ'm.
inside ts'ᴇlᴇ'm.
instep lᴇqsnē'eqs.
instrument ha —.
—— k·an —.
to intend r'ap = must, anything serious, habitual.
interior, inside of, ts'ār, *pl.* ts'ᴇts'ā'r.
intestines hat (see *womb*).
into lō.
—— *to carry*, ts'ᴇlᴇ'm ga.
iron t'ō'otsk (see *black*).
island lᴇks d'a', *pl.* lᴇkshūwa'n = alone sitting.
island, large stand, lᴇqlᴇksd'a'.
it nē'edᴇt.

J.

jackknife haqpa'qt.
jay, blue, kuskua's.
just da.

K.

kelp-cake tlå'ask.
kidney lᴇpᴇ ts'a't (see *stomach*).
to kill ts'ak, yets (see *dead*).
killer (Delphinus Orca) nē'iqtl (see *fin*).
kingfisher tsiâ'lk.
knife hatlebī'esk = instrument smoothing.
—— *butcher*, ha k·'ōtsa'mē (ha = instrument, k·'ōts = to cut, a'mē = meat).
knothole in board anē'is (see *branch*).
to know wulā'i.
Kwakiutl Gagō'otl, t'ad'a' = those far away.

L.

labret k·'ā'uts.
—— *perforation for*, nak·'ag·a a'q (see *mouth*).
ladder k·anā'qs.
landslide tlâ.
large wī lē'ks (wī = great).
to laugh sis'a'qs, *pl.* lasaa'qs.
law wulᴇlâ'.
leaf ia'nᴇs.
to leave dā'wult, *pl.* k·adā'wult.
—— gdaqs.
—— wātk (see *from*).
—— *the house* ksᴇr, *pl.* ksâq (see *out*).
left hand (nᴇ)me'tekiawan (ᴇm an'o'n).
leg (a)sī'.

leg above knee k·ᴇlg·ā'isil.
—— *below knee* tᴇmtlā'm.
to lie down nâk, *pl.* lätlk.
lightning ts'ā'mtē.
to like sa'ra.
lip, upper, kwaq.
little tlgua.
liver pē.
long wī nak' (wī = great).
—— *time* sk·ana'q, n'aga'.
to look nē'etsk, *pl.*neknē'etsk.
—— *after somebody moving away* kuō'tlstakᴇlā'atl.
to look up man nē'etsk.
to love hasā'oknᴇnan.
lungs dep.

M.

to make ts'ap, *pl.* ts'apts'a'p.
—— *the same* wilawa'ldet.
—— sᴇ —, *pl.* g·asᴇ'—.
—— (*to catch and dry*) *salmon* sᴇhâ'n, *pl.* g·asᴇhâ'n.
—— *a fist to somebody* t'a'gyil an'o'n-(2)ts'al(3) = arm(2) face(3).
man iō'ot, *pl.* iō'ota.
many häldᴇ, wihäldᴇ (wī = great).
marmot kuī'yuk.
to marry naksk (see *husband*).
martin iē'nē.
mask amē'lᴇk· = used at night.
mast k·an ᴇm atlo'm = tree of sail.
master miā'n.
mat of cedar bark sk·an.
meat sa'mē.
midnight sᴇrlg·aā'tk.
milk ksᴇm a'ks = woman water.
miserable, good for nothing, k·a'mste.
—— *in compounds,* k·am —.
misfortune happening q—ka.
to miss guā'ades, *pl.* gutguā'ades.
to mistake for gun.
a monster of the sea ts'ᴇm a'ks = in water.
month gy'a'muk (see *moon, sun*).
moon gy'a'muk ᴇm hō'open = sun of night.
morning k·antlā'k·.
mortar nᴇbᴇts'ē'.
mosquito gyī'ek = piercer.
mother nâ'e.
mother-in-law tlāms.
mountain sqanē'is.
mountain goat mᴇ'tē (see *sheep*).
—— —— *young,* wäkʜ.
mountain lion nā'osō.
mouse wuts'ē'ᴇn.
mouth kutl'ā'q (see *lip*).
mud lōa'ky.

N.

nail (*of finger*) tlᴇqs.
—— *of toe* tlᴇqs ᴇm sī.
name wā.
narrow, long and, mᴇ'qtla.
a narrow opening lōtlkō'ol.
neck t'ᴇmlā'nē.
neckring of cedar bark lō'ē (borrowed from Kwakiutl).
nephew (sister calls sister's son) = son.
—— (brother calls brother's son) = son.
—— (sister calls brother's son) tlguslē's.
—— (brother calls sister's son) tlguslē's.
Neqno'q, Nᴇqno'q, *supernatural beings.*
nest nlō'otlk.
net, large, tk·ätl.
—— *small,* pᴇ'na.
night hō'opᴇn.
night atk.
nimbus mē'ᴇk.
no ā'yen.
no (*adj.*), atlgᴇ.
noise bō = any noise.
—— qstā'meq (of falling objects).
noon lᴇbarē'it sqet'ā' gya'muk.

north ge'relka.
north-northwest wind gyiterane'etsk (see *Tongas*).
nose ts'aq.
—— *ridge of,* ktō'usk em ts'aq.
nose ornament k·alk·tsitlō'osk.
nostril tsem ts'aq = in nose.
not atlge.
notch of arrow hanemâ'ul.
now gyā'wun.
Nusqē'mta (of the Bilqula legends) me.

O.

œsophagus nā'ata.
olachen re.
—— ha lemātk = saviour.
old (*man*) wud'a'gyat (em iō'ot) = great people.
on top of laq (also beginning all names of islands).
on (*against*) tqal.
the one who tei'n.
only g·am.
to order gun.
otter wa'tsa (see *foolish*).
out of ksâ.
outside gye'laq.
over, across, lē'r'an.
overcast ts'ē'ebe sa = close eye heaven.
owl qpâlremtlk.

P.

to paddle wā'i.
paddle wā'i.
paint, red, for face, mes'ā'wus.
palate atlēnā'.
palm of hand ts'em an'o'n = in hand.
pants p'aqs.
parents neguā'at (see *father*).
to be particular whom one's child is to marry nālegyidahā'u.
to pay qtkâ.
paying for burial to gens of father dē'wul (see *to burn*).
people gyat.
—— *who lived long ago* tetlgyat.
—— ts'apt.
—— *common,* waā'ien.
pestilence haiatlilā'qs (*borrowed from* Kwakiutl).
pestle sī'ist.
to pierce gyetlk, *pl.* gyetlgyetlk.
pipe (a)qpēiā'n = eat smoke.
to pity ramrâ'd.
place of kene — (kun —, Gyitksan dialect).
—— — k — (only in geographical names).
—— (where something is frequently done) kspe —.
—— (where something is kept) — nde.
plant of foot ts'em tsâ'oqs = in foot.
to play k·amē'elek = to speak good for nothing.
to play with somebody sila k·amē'elek.
poor guē'e.
porcupine ā'wat.
porpoise dsīi'r.
potlatch yā'uk.
powder ō'melak (see *fire*).
prairie laq nep'a' (laq = on).
to prepare guldem k·a'wun = beforehand ready.
to pretend sis.
pretty amapa's (see *good*).
principal man.
to pull sā'ik.
—— *up* man sā'ik.
to pursue lōyā'ek, *pl.* lōlıyā'ek = into go on road.
to put into ts'e'lem = into.
—— lōsge're (lō = into).

Q.

quick t'ēn.
—— *to run,* alōbā'n t'ē'n.

R.

rabbit k·a.
raccoon dsâ'olky.
rain wās.
rainbow mā'qaē.
rapids dâ'eks.
rattle seso' (borrowed from Tlingit?).
raven k·āq.
—— *as deity* Tqē'msᴇm.
—— *gens* K·anha'da.
rays of sun sisī' gyamuk = feet of sun.
ready k·a'wun.
to receive, eat, q——.
receiving payment for burial qdē'wul.
—— qlō an'o'n.
to receive taa'qtl.
red mᴇsk.
relatives wulā'isk.
remains mān.
to request gunâ' (see *to order*).
to return iē'tlk.
—— *into* lō iē'tlk.
rib ptal.
rich amawā'l = well to do.
right hand nᴇsimiā'uwan (ᴇm an'o'n).
river g·'ala a'ks = ascending water, *pl.* g·'ala aka'ks.
—— *up* (locative), gīgya'nē.
—— *on the River Ksia'n,* ts'ᴇm siā'n.
to roll down gyā'agᴇltk.
roof awā'lp = house cover (ât).
—— laqa wālp = top of house.
round tkwia'tlk, *pl.* tkwiyitlye'tlk.
rowlock k·anwā'i = instrument paddling.
to run ba, *pl.* otl.
—— *into canoe* lōk·ᴇm ba.
—— *away* gy'ē'eqk.
—— —— *with somebody* da ba.

S.

safe mâtk.
sail atlo'm qsâ = sail boat.
saliva pōksk.
salmon hân.
—— *spring,* hânhisō'ont.
—— *berry* mᴇk'â'qs.
salt mân.
—— tlkum lâp (lâp = stone).
the same nenē'etl.
sand ā'us.
to save lᴇmā't.
to say hā'u.
—— ia.
scalp qâ'lē.
scar tlē'eky, *pl.* tlētlē'eky.
to scold wī ᴇm hā'ut = great say; (cf. *to cry*).
scraper of stone for dressing skins halogya'tlqan.
to scream aya'wa, ayaluwāda.
sea qā'tla (obsolete).
—— laq mân = on salt.
sea egg a'sōt.
seal rᴇ'la.
—— *big,* tō rᴇ'la.
—— *young,* k·'oâ'tk·.
sea lion t'ē'epᴇn.
sea otter ptlōn.
secretly dak·'ā'mtsᴇn.
—— *leave,* tikyē'eqk.
to see nē.
seldom wag'ᴇ'rᴇdᴇt.
self gyilᴇ'ks = back (in reflexive verbs).
—— lᴇp.
—— *myself* lᴇp nᴇ'riō.
to send hā'yets.
—— *a present* yā'wus.
separate lᴇksgya't (gyat = people).
septum ndā'o ts'aq (ts'aq = nose).
—— *perforation of,* nag·'ag' ᴇm ts'aq.
to sew tlō'opk.
shaman suwa'nsk.

shame! tsâq!
shavings k·am tlEbī′esk = useless shaven.
sheep mE′tē.
sheets tēhatlo′m (see *sail instrument*).
to shout gō (see *to guess*).
shore of lake ts′oq (qtsaqtl, Gyitksan).
short tālpk.
shoulder t′Emg·ā′ē.
sick sī′epk.
sickness hasī′epk.
to sing lī′ēmi.
Sisiutl (*double-headed snake*) Laqaqua′sa = both sides head.
sister (called by sister) tlE′mktē.
—— (called by brother) tlkā′uk.
to sit d′a, *pl.* wan.
skin anā′s.
sky ts′Em laqa′ = in above.
slave qā′a (tqalwā′alEmqtl?).
to sleep qstoq, *pl.* laqstâ′oq.
slime of snail yetl.
slope, gentle, wulōtla′p.
slow lāltk.
small ts′ō′osk (also, *young of animals*).
—— tlgua.
smoke p′ēiā′n.
to smoke qp′ēiā′n = to eat smoke.
smoke hole a′la.
to smoothen tlE′lEp.
smoothened tlEbī′esk.
snail hatsaE′rElt.
snake matqalā′ltq.
snow mā′dEm.
something gâ (see *what*).
—— ky′En.
sometimes k·aqpa.
son = male child.
soot g′âm.
sorrow t′âqtl.
south hā′iwas (see *rain*).
southeast gī′si hā′iwas (gīsi = down river, wās = rain).
span, thumb to second finger, sâ′ols.
sparrow-hawk qskya′msEn (borrowed from Tlingit?).
to speak a′lgiaq, *pl.* ala′lgiaq.
—— hāu.
—— *together* sarait hāu.
—— *against somebody* lEbi′lt hāu.
spider skyet.
spring kwana′ks (aks = water).
spoon of mountain-goat horn haa′ks = instrument drink.
spruce sE′mEn, *pl.* sEmsE′mEn.
squid hats′a′lt.
squirrel dasq.
to stand hā′yitk, *pl.* maqsk.
star piā′ls.
starfish k·amā′ts.
to stay d′a, *pl.* wan (see *to sit*).
—— *for a while* g·′ad′a = a while stay.
—— *to camp on beach* dsoq.
—— *boat, staying* (not moving, on water) lâ′o.
to steer hadā′i.
stockade dâ.
stomach ts′al.
stone lâp, *pl.* lEplâ′p.
to stop (v. a.), gyilâ′gō.
story adā′wuq.
stranger lEksgyat = separate people; *pl.* hagulEgya′t.
strap for basket k·anauwa′lē.
to strike t′ō′os.
to succeed, to be able to do anything, aqtl.
to suck nEhEmâ′.
suddenly sa.
summer sōnt.
sun gyā′muk.
—— *rises* tlaksewā′ntk gyā′muk.
—— *sets* tkiā′sa.
swallow sEpEqī′ Em aks (aks = water).
to sweep d′ō.

T.

tail ts'ōp.
to take ga, *pl.* doqtga (see *at*).
to take away sētqa iā'gok(?).
to take into ts'ᴇ'lᴇm ga = into at.
to take from fire asli.
to take off blanket saga't.
tall wīnak (wī = great).
—— nᴇptlaqtl.
to taste baq.
tattooing on breast gyetlk·ā'yek (see *to pierce*).
—— —— *arm* gyetlo'n.
to teach sᴇ wulā'i = to make know.
to tear down (a house) k·oa'lt.
—— *to pieces* pē'ᴇl.
tears ksīl.
to tell matl.
temples wulksitlā'ntk.
then kyek.
—— adawu'l.
they dᴇp nē'ᴇdᴇt.
thimble k·antlō'obes = sew instrument.
thin, lean, ksa sā'yup (sā'yup = bone?).
thirsty lōgᴇ'rᴇn aks ts'ᴇm aq (aks ts'ᴇm aq = water in mouth).
thou nᴇ'rᴇn.
to throw into fire tqē'el.
thumb mâs.
thunder k·alaplē' ᴇm laqa' = thunderbird in heaven.
thunderbird k·alaplē'ep.
the tide falls ts'â aks (aks = water).
the tide rises lēks aks (it grows the water).
to tie, fasten, ts'ē'ep.
sometime tlana'k.
Tinne ts'ᴇts'a'ot = those in the interior.
tired sōnā'tl, *pl.* k·asōnā'tl.
to da.
toad k·anā'o.
tobacco, Indian, wundâ'.
tobacco, European, wundâ k·'ᴇmksī'oa.
to-day sēigya'wun.
together sarā'it.
to-morrow tsegyets'ē'ip (see *yesterday*).
—— *day after,* tsenatâ' tsegyets'ē'ip.
Tongas land and man gyiteranēts.
Tongas woman suwa't (borrowed from Tlingit = woman).
tongue dū'ᴇla.
tooth ua'n.
lower row of teeth ua'n ᴇm lakī'etl.
upper row of teeth ua'n ᴇm laqa'.
top of anything g·a'lon (obsolete, now only "handle of paddle").
—— man 'laqa'.
town k·'alts'a'p, *pl.* k·'alts'apts'a'p.
tragus nᴇk·'â'pᴇn mō (mō = ear).
to go traveling hat'ā'qs.
tree k·an, *pl.* k·ank·a'n.
trousers of skin p'aqs tqa (see *pants*).
to try, to examine, sᴇntsaai'lisk.
to turn back tkwia'tl (see *round*).
to turn over g·'aphā'yetk.
twins ksēt'ᴇpqadâ'l (from *two*).
—— sᴇwihâ'n = making many salmon.

U.

ugly sqats'ᴇ'r.
uncle (father's brother) nᴇguā't = father.
——(mother's brother) nᴇbē'ip.
under tlᴇr.
unmarried wōk·'ā'lekyetk.
upward baq.
to use hâ.

V.

valley tlkut'ē'en.
vein k·ag· ᴇm itlē' (itlē = blood).
very sᴇmra'l.
—— *in compounds,* sᴇm —.

visible nēsa'p.
to visit g'a k·â'edᴇks = for a while come.

W.

wait! hawē'nē (see *by and by*).
to wait liē'tl.
to walk ya (see *to follow*).
to want (ha) sā'rau.
war uldō'yet.
warm gyā'muk (see *sun*).
watching liē'tlks (see *to wait*).
water aks.
wave g·â'op.
we nᴇ'rᴇm.
wearing apparel gus.
weir for catching seals with falling tide dsīs.
west qpa'la.
whale tlpōn.
what gâ.
when? nda.
—— *future,* tsēdᴇ'nda.
—— *past,* adᴇ'ndade, adᴇ'ndaē.
where wul.
where? ndā.
for a while g'a, lām.
white mâks.
who? which? gō, nā.
whose natl.
whole tqa (see *all*).
widow, widower tsᴇnᴇs ts'ak.
wife naks (see *married*).
wife, first (principal wife), sima'naks (mian = master, naks = wife).
—— *second, third wife,* k·alna'ks.
wind pask.
—— *a certain* (direction doubtful), gᴇgtā'tk.
windpipe haā'lagyaq = speaking instrument.
wing k·'ak·'ā'i.
—— *feathers* lī ᴇm k·'ak·'ā'i.
to wish hasā'q.
with da.
without wō ——
wolf kyebā'ō.
—— *gens* laqkyebā'o = on the wolf.
woman hanā'aq, *pl.* hanā'naq.
womb hāt.
woodpecker kitlwuē'ansk; sᴇmgyī'ek = spruce pecker.
to wrestle baq.
wrist nᴇqpâ'ra an'o'n.
to write d'am.

Y.

year k'âtl.
yes ō.
—— *said from a distance* haā' = in a high key.
yesterday gyets'ē'ip (see *to-morrow*).
—— *day before,* natâ'da gyets'ē'ip.
you nᴇ'rᴇsᴇm.
young man sō'pas (ᴇm iō'ot).
—— *bear* sōntlk (ᴇm ol).
—— *animal* tlgᴇm.

TSIMSHIAN TEXTS.

Wᴜʟᴀǫᴛʟᴀ̂'ᴛᴋ (where a misfortune happened by a landslide), Iɴᴠᴇʀɴᴇss.

Tla lâ'yiksga Ts'ᴇmsia'nga amia't gasga Ksiā'nga nu wul
Having left the Tsimshian come from they from the Skinar (past) where

g·asᴇhâ'ntga. Adawul g'a lât gasga gyā'atsga; ada
they make salmon. And then for a while they camp at there; and

tlgō'otlg ᴇm hanā'aqsga g'âltga sᴇm'â'gyitga, gō'ga sᴇm-
the child woman of a certain chief, which very

lᴇgyidahā'wutga. Tla hō'opᴇtga dak·'a'mdsᴇn
he was particular whom she should marry. (Perfect) night secretly

k·â'ᴇdᴇksga g'â'ltga â'm a sōpā's ᴇm iō'otga. Adat k·âsga wul
comes a certain nice young man. And he goes where

nâ'gasga tlguā'lksga. Ada hā'ut gasga dᴇmt de batga. Adat
lies the chief's daughter. And he says (?) with run him. And
(elope with him).

enâ'oqtga. Adawul k·adā'wutltga. Tla t wasga nawālptga,
she consents. And then they left. (Perfect) they having reached his house,

adawult tqal ha'yint gasga gye'laqga, adaᴇl ts'ē'entga, ada
and then he against makes her stand at outside, but he enters, and

hā'us dᴇp nâ'otga dīs nuguâ't: "Ayentl nak·anuwā'nē,
say (plural) his mother and his father: "Did not you (past) make work you
(go for her sake),

nat?" "Hā'yetga da gya'larat," dā'yaga. Adawul ksâ otlga
my dear?" "She stands at outside here," he replies. Then out run

tlemktī'yetkgatga. Adawult ts'ᴇ'lᴇm ctō'oltga. Adawul
his sisters. And then into she accompanies them. And then

tqâ'oqgatga asga lōmā'msga k·agâ'otga. K·antlā'kga. Adawul
they eat being in good hearts. It is morning. Then

k·â'ᴇdᴇksga tlgua wud'agya'tga, Ksᴇmwuts'ē'enga wā'atga. Ada
comes a little old person, Female Mouse her name. And

hā'utgat: "Tqē'el g·antsemō'nt!" ada wa'lsga tlguā'lksga;
she says: "Burn your earring here!" and she does so the chief's daughter;

adaᴇlwu'lt asti daqtga tlgua wud'ā'gyatga. Adawul hā'utga:
but then she from fire she takes it the little old person. Then she says:

"Dātl! Wulā'yenē, gō tᴇi'ngā'dᴇnt?" "Ayent," dā'yaga.
"My dear! do you know, who the taker of you here?" "No," she replies.

"Hatsaᴇ'rᴇldᴇt," dā'yaga. Ada sᴇm-ba'sga tlguā'lksga. Ada
"The snail," she answered. And very afraid the chief's daughter. And

hā'usga Ksᴇmwuts'ē'enga: "Ndâ'e! gy'ē'eqkᴇn! atlgᴇ waraidâ otl,
it said the female mouse: "Go! run away! not far run,

wul dsoqs dᴇp nᴇguā'dᴇn. Da yā'kᴇn stō'op'ᴇl atlge
where stay (plural) your parents. Just walk on road back of house not

nēsa'ba na liyā'gᴇsᴇmt yag·a. Ye'tlᴇt. Nenē'etl lō
visible (past) you went (plural) downward. There is slime. The same in

yā'kᴇn baq k·â sqanē'esit ada mᴇ le'r'an yā'get! Nēnē' wul
go on road up go mountain that and you over go! It is where

ds'oqs dᴇp nᴇguā'dᴇn gyē'egᴇt." Adawul wā'lesga
stay on beach (plural) parents below." And then she does

tlgua'lksga. Sis lām ksᴇrgaga'. Adaᴇlwu'l bātga.
the chief's daughter. She pretends after a while to go out. But she runs.

Sem- lō yā'tgatga na matldᴇsga tlgua wud'ā'gyatga. Tlana'ksga
Exactly in she goes (past) she told the little old person. Having some time

wāldga, adawu'l guā'desga na'kstga. Adat wul wulā'isga
done so, then he misses her her husband. And he then knows

gy'ē'eqgatga. Adawult sag·ā'it hukhō'otkgasga tqanē'esga nᴇ wī
she had escaped. And then together he called them all his great

ts'a'ptga. Adawul lōliā'gᴇtga. Tla sᴇmt wātga
tribe. Then they pursue her. (Perfect) exactly she reaches

tlgua'lksga sᴇm laq'o'sga sqanē'isga, da nᴇqnâ'etga wī
the chief's daughter the very top of the mountain, just she hears great

qstā'mᴇqga. Adawult gō'usga ts'ᴇt lōyā'yet. Adawu'la tgye
noise. And then she guesses that they pursue her. And then down

bât gasga sqanē'isga. AdaEl tlā'wula hā'usga wī qstā'mEqga;
she runs from the mountain. But always sounds great noise;

ada gyilEks nē'etsgEtga: rakstanā'ga! tla yik·ayā'sga wī tlâ'oga;
and back she looks: behold! (perfect) down comes great landslide;

k·ank·a'nga liē'natga ada wu'd'a lEplâ'opga gyikgyā'gEltgatga. Adawu'l
trees fall and great rocks roll down. Then

ayawa'sga hanā'aqga; tlat nē'etsga wul dsoqs dEp nEguā'dga,
screamed the woman; (perfect) she sees where stay (plural) her parents,

asgEt gun lōk·Em; g·ag·ā'ōditgasga ts'Em g·aqsâ'ogE. Adawul
she ordering to go into canoe; they finish (have gone) into the canoes. And then

dī gun a'qtlgatga. Adawul lō'k·em g·'aphā'yetget gasga
also towards (into) she succeeds. Then go into turns round at

qsâ'os nEgua'tga. Mâtgaga, adaEl wul wī tlâ'osga nE wul
the canoe of her father. She is safe, but where great landslide (past) where

dso'qtga. Ada gyilgs nEknē'etsgatga, rakstanā'ga! wī hä'ld Em
they had been. And back they look, behold! great many

hats·aE'rEltga k·anuwā'ltga. Adawu'lt matltga tlgua'lksga wula
snails make happen it. And then she tells the chief's daughter why

wā'ltga. Ada nē'nētga da Wulaqtlâ'otga wulawā'ldet.
it happened. And it is at Inverness where it happened.

K·anuwā'de da wul-q-tlâ'ot-k-at.
It makes name at where landslide-misfortune happening.

Prayer 1.

Neqno'q, Neqno'q; sEm'â'yits, sEm'â'yits! ramrâ'dEn! tgyē nē'e
Neqnoq, Neqnoq; chief, chief! have mercy! downward look

wal tlErE'nt n ts'ā'pEnt.* Man sā'ikya sī'Ent, ada ma d'ō ts'ânt!
doing under you thy people Up pull thy foot, and off sweep thy face!

Prayer 2.

Neqno'q, Neqno'q; sEm'â'yits, sEm'â'yits! ramrâ'dEn! ā'yen
Neqnoq, Neqnoq; chief, chief! have mercy! else nobody

tEE'n qsEpēiā'nEksEn tlE'rEnt! Neqno'q! ramrâ'dEn!
the one to make you receive smoke under you! Neqnoq! have mercy!

Prayer 3.

Lō sā'ikya na ksEnā'tlgEnt, sEm'â'yit! dEm wul gya'kset!
Into draw thy breath, chief! (future) that it be calm!

Before dinner the Tsimshian burn some food as an offering for Neqnoq. After having done so they pray:

Wa, sEm'â'yits! dEm gā'bEn guaa qpiyē ga'bEnmēE. Tawā'l
There, chief! (future) you eat this part of our food. That is all

mān da gua'a; tawā'l mān da gua'a tlguanēe. Gyī'EnEm!
left at here; that is all left at here to your child. Give us food!

* Instead of n ts'ā'pEnt, I heard also nEsEgya'tEnt = *your people made by you.*

SATIRICAL SONG, MOCKING THE INHABITANTS OF MEQTLAKQATLA EMIGRATING WITH MR. DUNCAN TO ALASKA.

1. Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.
Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.

Gyilâ'dsE wigya'tgEn.
Do not (future) be you homesick.

AtsEda lâ'yegEn, tsEda suwā'dEn.
When you will leave, when will be you a Tongas woman.

2. Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.
Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.

ME tsE g·am yā'wus dī
You will only send a present also

Atl gEnē'guatl ndE sineksâ'k.
Of preserved berries kept in grease bag (*sea-lion guts*).

3. Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.
Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.

Gyilâ na wī hā'utgEn !
Do not (past) you cry !

Wul gyinad'ā's Caledonia.
Because they left behind Caledonia.

Tlatsēdē qga'nEgEn.
When you will have eaten rotten salmon heads.

4. Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.
Ōyeya, ōyeya, â.

Gyilâ'na wa k·â'dEn dâ
Do not be foolish

Gō lEbElt hā'usEm da Indian Ē'edzEn.
Who against you talk the Indian Agent.

A MYTHIC TALE OF THE ISLETA INDIANS.

BY ALBERT S. GATSCHET.

(*Read before the American Philosophical Society, December 18, 1891.*)

The study of the Indian languages of New Mexico has been neglected more than that of other sections of our wide territory and it is with much satisfaction that I present in print the first continuous text worded in one of them, that of Isleta Pueblo. It is a dialect of the Téwan, or, as it is called in J. W. Powell's classification, the Tañoan family, with a translation and with a paraphrasis, which is more comprehensible to the general

reader. The source from which the two portions of the tale were obtained is mentioned in the "Comments," with all the particulars needed.

TEXT I. THE BOY-ANTELOPE.

Kamäntchu' yowa' natüei' we ai'; hu'ba wi'si Pi'-'li
It is said somewhere a village there (was); and two "Bighead"

u'-unin t'hü' ai. Pi'-'li upiû'^{n}u-ide a-u'kwimban yuwi'n'a
young people lived there. "Bighead" the girl being pregnant not any (had)

ä'napa hukwa'hi pa'nat; bepapa'-u uba' pa' ai huä'tcheban,
place to be delivered; her elder brother then prairie to took (her),

hu'ba u'kwoban. Wi'wai bepapa'ba matcheba'n
and she bore a child. Hereupon her elder brother brought (her) back

tüei, u'-u mā'shuban pa' ai. Hu'ba wi'm'a
to the village, the babe he left prairie upon. Then a

ta'li'ora-ide u'-u t'aba'n, hu'bak a'wa ö-ukĕmiba'n.
female antelope the babe found, and she brought it up.

Wiba'-a wi'm'a shü^n-i'de shütche'mik ta'lī'ora t'ha'ban
Once a hunter while hunting a she-antelope met

wim'a a ü'-a-u fiĕ'rk. Ye'de ü'wa-u-ide wi'ĕra-i tamni'n
(and) a boy along with (her). That boy was a runner antelopes

ai'ti t'hurī'm. Shü-au'ti makwibā'k nakā'tchau wi'ban
than faster. From the chase when he returned notice he gave

kie'nda ta'-i-kabe'-ide, betu'winiban wie'n t'hü' we-i' shi'mba
at once to the town-cacique, (who) proclaimed: four days after all

ta'-inin ishû shanhi'nap: "wi'm'a ü'wa-u-ide tchie'minap
the people on a hunt should start: "(that) a boy was going about

tamni'n an, hu'ba inabä'wa î'shierhinap." Wie'n t'hü we'-i
antelopes with, and we want to seize him." Four days after

shi'mba tüei'-ide u' fier, 'li'o fier, süa' fier ishü-miba'n,
the whole pueblo, children with, women with, husbands with to hunt went,

ibi t'a taba'n, bi'tchu î-u'beban î'pie t'a
they the antelopes found, but were told, that not the antelopes

χüĕramhi'nab, wei'ba-i-i ü'wa-u shie'rhinap tin., Ta'liora'-ide
they should hurt, merely the boy to get hold of try. The female antelope

ana' katchaba'n, hu'ba ü'wa-u u'miban, be-e' 'lipwĕrhi'nnap.
was informed, and the boy she told not to leave (her).

Ta tamni'n inakwî'er p'i-amba'n, hitüe'rwemik buorti'm
Then the antelopes began to run, and while they ran in a ring

ta'liora'-ide ü'wa-u u'miwe. "Na'yan kin wu'hi tün-ü'χ-
the female antelope the boy called (to her). "Presently we will run north-

tü'^{n}na-u; hu'bak inshu'minak, nātü^{n}āk kake'-i kwimba'hi
west; and while we pass (the ring) on the line your mother will stand

shie'rnai, hu'bak a shu'miwe-ifier, akwei'tchehi, hu'bak u'
on the left side, then as you pass (the line) you will fall down, and there

kake′ba hashie′rehi." — Hu′bak ba hu′na pu′aban. — Ka
your mother will catch you." — And (so) it occurred. — That's

hui′kiēm.
your tail.

TEXT II. THE RACE OF THE TWO CHAMPIONS.

Ka′pio kawe′-ide na tü′wiban ʞɹe′ shamba′k.
"Cold-Hearted" the chief, the earth pierced through (and) above came out.

Shamba′g pa-hwi′e muba′n, hu′ba kai′ban "Shi′ba
After emerging a lake he saw, and he named (it) "Tears

fûn′-a-i," hu′ba yeti′ itai′ we′ban nabat′hü′ tü′ei.
dark," then thence (his) people he took to the white pueblo.

Ye′dit′hü ta′ban wim′a natü′ei we ai′, na′dshûr′ tü′ei,
Here they found another village being there, the yellow village,

yo-u-a′ i-uwe′-siēm tai′nin pa′-in it′hüpan a′-i. Hu′bāk
where wicked people were living. Hereupon

nadshu′ri tü′ei wesie′mnin î-ukwiewi′ a′-uban nabat′hü′
the yellow pueblo, the wicked people, racers invited, of the white

tü′ei hi′tai we′-in an. Wi′en t′hü′ ibemaküamba′n,
pueblo its people (to be) with them. Four days did they make ready,

hû′bak shi′mba ibe′tüyiban, hu′bak imî′ban natchû′ri
then all assembled, then proceeded to the yellow

tü′ei. Nabad′hü′ tü′ei tai′nin an natchû′ri tü′ei
pueblo. The white pueblo people (and) the yellow pueblo

tai′nin an yu′na kûmna′ kiĕrba′n, ibenahumiba′n;
people thus their clothing laid down, they did bet;

hu′bak natchû′ri tü′ei pi′eni-ai hu‘li′mihi′nab;
and the yellow pueblo (expected ?) to be victorious;

natchû′ri tü′ei tai′nin ibe′wa humiba′n, hitu′mik
of the yellow pueblo the people their lives staked, saying

pa′y′a ‘limba′-î ‘ludehina′b natü′ei fi′er, en hi′ria-a
that who was beaten would be burnt the village with, with property

we′-in. Nabat′hü′ tü′ei hûra ibe′wa humiba′n, wi′en
his. The white pueblo also their lives staked, (and) four

t′hü′ we-i′ kwie′win inwû′rihiei. Shi′mba tai′nin
days after the racers were to start. All the people

hitü′tcheban, witchunaida′d kwî′ewnin hinmakü′ⁿ ai. Hu′bak
assembled, of both sides the racers were ready. Hereupon

thü′ be′kti hinûri′ban, wi′m′a na′hwe′-iakin tai′nin himi′ban,
the next day (they) arrived, on one eminence the people went,

hu′bak yeti′ a′wan wî′tad inmi′ban. Wi′wai wi′m′a
and from there onward (the racers only) went further. (From) Another single

na′hwe′yak i′nkimbak, natchû′ri tü′ei kwiewi′de be ta′kie
eminence when they disappeared, of the yellow pueblo the racer into a hawk

peba′n. Pi′enabĕ tüba-u′ i′nmimik, shumieifie′rk
changed himself. Some distance towards east when they had gone, when he passed by

tua′mban nabat′hü′ tü′ei kwiewi′de: "Hahahā′, ta-u′ide!
he said of the white village to the racer: "Hahaha! antelope!

hakû′ tieremi′k! me′tchu awa′ wa′nhi hue′bai."
good by! perhaps you will reach the east."

Hue′bai inwa′mban· hue′bai kwie′r tü′-u hinmabo′rîbak;
The east having reached from east towards north they turned;

takie′de tch′ûm′ mî′mi-e-i hue′bai kwî′er tü′-u;
the hawk flew· ahead from east towards north;

pie′nnak în′mimik wi′m′a ′lio′-u-ide nabat′hü′ tüei′ti
halfways having gone one old woman from the white pueblo

tua′mban ta-u′ide. Ta-u′ide bewi′niban hu′bak ye′de
spoke to the antelope. The antelope stopped and that

′lio′-u-ide wi′-en′a u′wîr wie′tcheban, u′bemîk
old woman four reed-pipes gave him, telling (him)

ufetchihî′nab wî′ba hue′bai pie′nnai, wi′ba hue′-û-i
to light (them) one from east (when) halfways, one from north

pie′nnai, ′ba hue′nai pie′nnab, ′ba hue′kwi pie′nnai.
halfways, one from west halfways, one from south halfways.

Wi′wai ta-u′-ide tüĕ′ɹweban hue′bai kwiĕr pie′nnai;
Again the antelope ran east towards some distance;

mi′mik wi′p′a i′wîr fe′tchiban; ifa̦′ribak be fi′
while running one reed-pipe he lighted; when he had done clouds

ye′niban, hio-ati′n mi′mik benamakwĕrkie′-iban,
arose, (and) a short way moving on did wrap in (both),

nö^{n}′amin. Yo-a′btinbak pa′ ′lu′laidewa′na, ta-u′-ide
it darkened. After a while rain fell in heavy drops, the antelope

beta′n bai′tin besu′rban; t′a′ hue′-u-i wa′nhi
shook itself and then wiped off (the moisture); almost the north-point going to reach

pa′nab, takie′ kü′wan, takie′ mo′bak shi′mba pati′n
nearly, the hawk it met, the hawk it found all over wet

tu′la′ak arû′mig. Shumiei′fierk tû-a′mban: "Hahaha′!
on a cottonwood tree crying. As he passed it said (to him): "Haha!

haku′ tieremi′k, yu′ni nu′ siĕ′rnin i-uta′manin;
good by! in this way men treat each other,

me′tchu hue′nai a wa′nhî;" hu′bak ta′-uide bepi′kûrwan,
perhaps the west-point you will reach;" then the antelope started,

hue′nai kwir bemabuo′rimik takie′-ide bakü weba′n.
the west towards veering about the hawk overtook (it).

Shumiei′fier û′beban: "ta′-uide, ta′sim aku′ tieremi′k!
As he passed by he shouted: "antelope, now good by!

Yu′ni nu′ siĕ′rnin ibe-i-utama′nin. Me′tchu hwe′kui
In this manner men act towards each other. May be south

a wa′nhi!"
you will arrive!"

Takie'-ide shuba'n wi'wai; ta-u'ide be-î'-eniban, hu'bak
The hawk passed by again; the antelope arose (from the ground), then

iwi'r fetchiba'n, wi'wai bena' p'i' pe'ban, nü'^{n}amim.
(another) reed-pipe he lighted, again did cloudy it become, it darkened.

Hu'bak ta-u'ide bemadü^{n}aru'itin bepi'kûrwan, wi'wai
Then the antelope did roll itself on the ground did start on a run, again

hwe'kui wa'nhi pa'nai takie' kü'wan shi'mba pa'tinmûk
at the south arriving nearly the hawk it met all over wet

aru'mig, beshu'rmik tu'la'-ag ik. "Hako'amiam!
screaming, wiping himself on a cottonwood tree while sitting. "Try (again)!

yu'ni nû sië'rnin yut'ama'nin! t'a' ha'ku tie'rĕmik; sîm
in this manner men act towards each other! now good by; again

me'tchu hwe'kui a wa'nhî." Wî'wai ta-u'ide be madü^{n}a-
perhaps to the south you get will." Again the antelope while rolling

rume'tin bepiku'rban, wi'wai wä'kwi wa'nhi pa'nab, takie'de
itself started to run, again at the south going to arrive almost, the hawk

baküweba'n. Shumie'ifier t'a'-û tu'amban tu'mig: "haku'
caught up with. As he passed to the antelope he spoke saying: "good

tieremi'k, biu'ni nu' na'dshur' tü'ei sü^{n}a'nin i-utama'nin."
by, in this way of the yellow pueblo the people treat each other."

Wi'wai wä'kui kwiĕr pie'nnab ta'-uide mî'mik wibaki'n
Again south towards some distance the antelope while going another

iwîr' fätchiba'n, wi'wai bänamakoarkiei'ban, nö'amim;
reed-pipe lighted, again clouds formed, (and) it darkened;

we'bai wa'nhi pa'nai takie' kü'ban. Shumiei'fier
(when) at the east it was to arrive nearly the hawk it overtook. As he passed by

takie' tu'amban tumî'k: "Ta'sim haku' tieremi'k! yu'ni nu'
to the hawk it spoke saying: "Again good by! in this way

nabat'hü' tü'ei tai'nin i-utama'nin."
the white pueblo people treat each other."

Hu'bak shuba'n; ta'-in wa'nhi pa'nat, i-o-a' hintai'
Then it passed by (him); when on the point of arriving where they were to be

pe'hi pana't, takie'-ide wamba'n tü'ai, ta'-uide we'-i
changed into people, the hawk arrived behind, the antelope just

wĕri'mmik. Takie'-ide wa'na wi'm'a naɋre'yak; ta-u'ide
starting (again). The hawk arrived on one eminence; when the antelope

wĕri'mmik takie'-ide bepiku'rban. Wi'wai wi'm'a naɋreya'k
started the hawk began to run. Again to another eminence

nabat'hü' tü'ei ü'waide wiĕri'bak, t'ai'nin bamu'tcheban;
of the white pueblo the boy (runner) arriving, the people perceived (him);

natchu'ri tü'ei tai'nin hitû^{n}'we: "Hita' nabat'hü' tü'ei
of the yellow pueblo the inhabitants said to themselves: "Now the white village

kina' we i'tin na' wem." Nabat'hü' tü'ei tai'nin tu'ban:
ours now surely our own is." The white pueblo people said:

"Nabat'hü' tü'ei kwiewi'de tch'ûm' î'hi, na'dshûri tü'ei
"The white pueblo racer ahead is going, the yellow pueblo

kina' we i'tin na' wem." Wî'tchuna ida'd tai'nin
ours now surely ours is." On both sides the people

i-u'shu mi'ban, hu'bak i-u'shue nabat'hü' tü'ei ü'waide
to meet (the racers) went, and they met the white pueblo boy

tch'û'm i'hik ta'-in wa'mbak. Nabat'hü' tü'ei hata'
ahead coming when arriving (at the starting place). The white pueblo then

wie'n tü' we'-i shi'mba nadshu'ri tü'ei wĕsi'emnin
four days after all of the yellow pueblo wicked (people)

hitü^{n}ibe'itin hi'lu'deban natü'ei fierda't. Bî'tchu wi'm'a
were gathered (and) were burnt the village with. But one

wesî'emide wĕ t'hate'wa, hu'ba wē 'lu'deba; hu'ba ye'ti-i'ku
wicked (fellow) not was found, hence not was burnt; and from then

nya'n t'hü' kim we'siem t'hü'm.
to this day we have bad (people) living.

Translation of the Mythic Tale.

I.

Somewhere, at one time, there was a village, they say, and two "Big Head" (Pi'-'li) children lived there. One of them, the "Big Head" young woman, being with child, was unable to find some spot where she could be delivered; so she was taken by her brother to the prairie, where she was delivered. He left the babe upon the prairie and took his sister back to the village. A female antelope, finding the infant, brought it up.

Once a passing hunter met a female antelope, the boy being with her. That boy could run faster than any antelope, and when the hunter reached home he notified a clan-chief, who ordered that four days after all the people should start out on a hunt, "for a boy has been seen strolling with antelopes and we must get hold of him." Four days after, the whole pueblo, men, women and children, went out on a hunt and found the antelopes. They were told not to wound or slay any of the antelopes, but to try to catch that boy only. The female antelope having noticed this enjoined the boy not to part from her side. When the other antelopes began to run in a ring, that antelope called the boy to her, and said to him: "Now we will go to the northwest, and when we pass the line of the hunters your mother will stand on the left side, and, as if passing, you will fall to the ground and your mother will catch you." And so it was done. Now it is your turn!

II.

The clan-chief of the "Cold-hearted people" made his way through the earth's crust and came to the surface. After emerging from there he saw a lake and named it "Dark Tears," and then he took his clan to the

"White Pueblo." Near it he found another village, the "Yellow Pueblo," inhabited by people skilled in witchcraft. Then the Yellow Pueblo of wizards challenged the people of the White Pueblo to have a race with them. They prepared themselves during four days, when they gathered to proceed to the Yellow Pueblo. And the White Pueblo people and the Yellow Pueblo people deposited their garments on the ground and made bets. The Yellow Pueblo people expected victory with certainty, and put their lives at stake, proclaiming that the party conquered would be burnt, together with their village and all their property. Four days after the racers were to start. The people all assembled and the racers of both parties made themselves ready. The next day the crowds of people ascended a hill, whereas the racers alone went onward from there.

When on their race they descended from another hill and were lost sight of, the racer of the Yellow Pueblo transformed himself into a hawk. When they had gone quite a distance east, he overtook Antelope, the champion racer of the White Pueblo, and said to him: "Hahaha! good-by, Antelope! Perhaps you will be alive still when you reach the east point." Having attained that goal they turned from east to north; Hawk flew ahead of Antelope, and when they had gone halfway an old woman from the White Pueblo stopped Antelope and spoke to him. She gave him four ceremonial reed-pipes, and told him to light one of them when halfway from east to north, another when halfway from the north, another when halfway from the west, and the last one when halfway between south and east, the starting place.

Starting again, Antelope ran towards the east for some distance and lighted one of the pipes while on the run. When he had finished smoking it clouds arose which moved onward and enveloped both racers, so that it became dark. A while after rain began to fall in heavy drops. Antelope shook his body and wiped off the moisture. When on the point of reaching the goal at the north, he fell in with Hawk, who was dripping wet and sat on a cottonwood tree screaming. Passing by, Antelope said to Hawk: "Halloo! good-by! this is the way men treat each other, and perhaps you may reach the west point." Antelope started again, veered around towards the west and was overtaken by Hawk, who shouted to him: "Antelope, now good-by! in this manner men act towards each other; may be you will arrive south sometime!" Hawk passed by and Antelope arose from the ground, lit another reed-pipe, which brought on cloudiness and darkness again. Antelope, after rolling on the ground, started on his run again, and when he had arrived nearly at the south he overtook Hawk, wet all over from the torrential rain, screaming and wiping the water off while sitting on a cottonwood tree, and said to him: "Try it once more! In this manner people act towards each other; now good-by, perhaps you will get to the south point."

Again Antelope rolled on the ground and started out, and when on the point of reaching the south he was overtaken by Hawk. Hawk passed

him and said : "Good-by! this is the manner by which the people of the Yellow Pueblo treat each other."

When they had arrived at the place where human form had to be reassumed Hawk arrived second, and Antelope was on the way of setting out again. Hawk came upon a hill and when Antelope started, Hawk (who was transformed into a man) began to run. The boy racer of the White Pueblo, who had been Antelope, was now sighted by the people, and the inhabitants of the Yellow Pueblo said among themselves: "Now the White Pueblo is certainly our own!" But those of the White Pueblo said: "Our racer is ahead of the other and the Yellow Pueblo is now ours to a certainty." The people of both sides who went to greet the racers, met the boy of the White Pueblo ahead of his rival when both came to the starting place.

Four days after this all residents of the Yellow Pueblo of wizards were gathered and burnt, and their village also. But one of their wicked number could not be found, and hence was not burnt; and from that time until now we therefore have some wizard people living.

Comments on the Mythic Tale.

The mythic tale embodied in the above pages is very popular among the Isleta Indians, and I obtained it from one of them, Henry Kendall, who, in 1885 and for some years previous, was a pupil of the Indian Training School at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Considering his youthful years, he showed remarkable intelligence, and could reply to almost all the questions I propounded to him on the language and ethnology of his native tribe.

The legend is divided into two parts. I have placed the description of the adventures of the boy-antelope before the main story, though I obtained it as a secondary appendix to the same, and have to state that this part is incomplete at its end, for it does not mention the capture of the boy by the Isleta hunters, which had been the cause for sending them out on a hunt. He and his mother were called "Big Head" on account of their bulky hair, flowing loosely around their heads, which made the boy's head appear to be of preternatural size when the wind was blowing into his hair during a race.

The words, "now it is your turn," have no reference to the story, but indicate that the tale is finished and that another narrator has his turn to count another story. In the original these words convey the idea: "That is your tail," ka̧ huiʹkiēm.

As to the legendary migration of the "Cold-hearted" clan out of the bowels of the earth towards the "Lake of the Dark Tears," the Indians of Cochití and Taos, New Mexico, are acquainted with it also, and relate that the lake was to the north, in what is now Colorado, and that they saw it themselves. That populations originated from the earth and crawled out of it through an opening, is a myth very frequently found in

both hemispheres. It is very conspicuous for instance in the mythology of the Iroquois and Maskoki tribes in the eastern portion of the United States, and among the Yokat, the Pomo and the Wintún in California.

Where the White and the Yellow Pueblo were nobody can tell, but the colors may be significative, for the Indian tribes of the West possess a peculiar color symbolism. The Indians of Isleta exhibit certain colors by means of paint on their faces and garments; so the red-eye section uses red and white; the black-eye section, black and white; the earth gens, white and yellow; the maize gens, white, yellow, red, sometimes also black.

Their symbol colors for the points of the compass are white for the east; from there they go to the north, which is black; to the west, which is blue, and to the south, which is red.

The race proposed by the yellow or witchcraft pueblo and performed by representatives of both towns is a race around the world. The story is told very graphically and the oft-repeated exclamations and taunts which one runner shouts to his rival are ceremonially used up to our day, though some of the terms are remnants of an archaic dialect. The reed-pipe, cigarette or calumet is a piece of reed three to four inches long, which is filled with tobacco and smoked only for ceremonial purposes. Many are now found in the sacrificial caves of the New Mexican Indians. It is thought to have the power to bring on rain-showers after a drought, but can be lit only by ministrants of sun worship. In fact all rain-clouds originate from its smoke and the carrizo-pipe plays an important rôle throughout the Pueblo legends.

In another version of the same story, which Mr. Charles F. Lummis has published in the September number of *St. Nicholas* (1891, pp. 828–835), the reeds were handed to the boy, not by an old witch, but by a mole, who for this purpose crept out of his burrow and accompanied his gift by well-meant advice.

The people of the Kapio gens or clan are called the strong, cold-hearted or persistent people on account of the persistence and energy which they evinced in digging their way through the crust of the earth up to its sun-lit surface, following the behests of their clan-chief. There are many of these clans in the Isleta Pueblo, and A. F. Bandelier has heard the names of fourteen, whereas from Kendall's indications I obtained the Indian names of eight only, the Kapio among them. All gentes seem to belong either to the red-eyed or to the black-eyed section. Of the other clans we name the shi'u tai'nin or *eagle people*, the na'm tai'nin or *earth people*, the i'-e tai'nin or *maize people*, and the hu'makun or *game people*.

According to Mr. Lummis' version, the white pueblo divided the spoils of the witch pueblo with the Isleta Indians, and later on removed to their village themselves. Such a removal to Isleta is also reported of some remnants of the Tigua people, though the principal pueblo of these was near Bernalillo, on the bank of the Rio Grande.

The two runners represent some nature powers interfered with by the

raingods, as the winds or the storm clouds chasing each other in the skies. The direction taken by the hawk and the antelope is the same as that by which the calumet smoke is blown out by the participants in the quarterly sun-worship festival.

The wording of the two stories is incomplete in several respects. So the transmutation of the racers into animals for the purpose of outdoing each other is not expressly mentioned, although the story cannot be understood without it. The other version also states that the boy-child left by his uncle and mother upon the prairie, was carried to the antelopes by a coyote, after which a mother antelope, who had lost her fawn, adopted the tiny stranger as her own.

By an ingenious act of the mother antelope the boy was surrendered again to his real human mother; for when the circle of the hunters grew smaller around the herd, the antelope took the boy to the northeast, where his mother stood in a white robe. At last these two were the only ones left within the circle, and when the antelope broke through the line on the northeast, the boy followed her and fell at the feet of his own human mother, who sprang forward and clasped him in her arms.

To acquire a correct pronunciation of this and other Tañoan (or Tehuan) dialects is not a very difficult task for Americans, after they have succeeded in articulating the ʞ, ɿ and ɹ, as sounds pronounced with the teeth closed; the ɹ is uvular besides. ä, ö, ü are softened vowels or Umlaute; â, î, û indicate a hollow, deep sound of a, i, u, and ĕ is the e of *butler*, *sinker;* ‘l is an l pronounced by pressing the fore part of the tongue against the palate; ¯ and ˘ mark length and brevity of vowels.

To give a full glossary and grammatic explanation of the texts is not within the scope of this article. But some of the more necessary elucidations are as follows:

Substantives descriptive of persons, of animals and of inanimate objects seen to move spontaneously, are made distinct in the singular number by the suffix -ide, in the plural by -nin, "many"; while inanimates are in the plural marked by -n, and in the singular show no suffix. In verbs, the ending -ban or -wan points to past tense, -hinap, -hinab, -innap, to a subjunctive or conditional mode, and a final -k to a participle.

THE SUN WORSHIP OF ISLETA PUEBLO.

There is so much similarity among the New Mexico Indians in appearance, customs, manners and ceremonial, that we need not be surprised at the equality of sun worship among all their pueblos, which is shared even by the Quéra Indians, who speak languages differing entirely from those of the Tañoan family. So a sketch of the Isleta sun worship will do for all of them.

The town of Isleta now holds about 1040 inhabitants and is divided in two parts by a wide street, called the plaça. The northern portion is inhabited by the Isleta medicine-men or "fathers" (ka-a'-ide, plural

kai'nin), the southern by the Laguna medicine-men, who are called so for having acquired their art in Laguna, a Quéra pueblo. The differences in the ceremonial of both sections, each of which has a separate medicine house, are slight, and during the ceremonies the two "schools" of medicine-men supplement each other. They are subject to the watchful care of the captains of war, of whom there are four or five in each of the two sections.

There are four annual periods of ceremonial sun worship in their pueblos, and every one of them is followed by a dance. The first of these festival periods occurs in September, the second in December, the third in February, because wheat is planted in the month after; the fourth, less important, a short time after the third. They last four days, not including the dance, and are evidently instituted for the purpose of influencing the sun deity in favor of granting a bountiful crop to the Indians.

Both medicine houses are long-shaped, running from west to east, where the entrance is. The fire burns not in the middle, but at the eastern end, the chimney being to the left of the entrance. In the roof a square opening is left for the sunlight to penetrate. Women are admitted to the house, but everything that is non-Indian is excluded; none of the white man's dress or shoes are admitted; the participants have to enter without moccasins and to wear the hair long.

The ceremony takes place at night, and begins with the following act of worship to the sun (tu'ɹide); each medicine-man carries a short buckskin bag filled with half-ground cornmeal; he is strewing the contents on the floor before the public, while an allocution is held to the sun, moon and stars. The Indians grasp the meal from the ground, and breathe upon it to blow off any disease from their bodies, for it is thought the meal will absorb or "burn" any disease invisibly present. Then the medicine-men throw the rest of the cornmeal in a line or "road," while "sowing" it on the ground to the sun. When all the meal is spent, they blow again upon their hands and *breathe up health* from them. This is done during four consecutive nights, during which the medicine-men abstain entirely from eating, drinking and sleeping, but are allowed to smoke. The calumet or reed-pipe, which is presented during the above act, is lighted and the smoke puffed first to the east, then to the north, west, south, then to the sky and to the centre of the earth. No moon worship exists among these Indians.

On the fifth day commence the dances, which are held under a large concourse of people and last from eight P.M. to four o'clock in the morning. The medicine-house holds about three hundred people, and nobody is allowed to leave before the above-mentioned hour, when the conjurers allow the people to breathe fresh air.

[In each word of the Isleta text, the emphasized syllable is marked by an *acute* accent standing after the vowel.]

Stated Meeting, December 18, 1891.

Present, 15 members.

President, Mr. FRALEY, in the Chair.

Correspondence was submitted as follows:

Letters of envoy were received from the Académie des Sciences, Cracow; K. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Wien; Schlesische Gesellschaft für Vaterländische Cultur, Breslaü; K. Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, Leipzig; Geological and Natural History Survey of Canada, Ottawa.

Letters of acknowledgment were received from the Tashkent Observatory (135); Societas pro Fauna et Flora Fennica, Helsingfors, Finland (135); K. Zoologisch-Botanisch Genootschap, The Hague (135); R. Netherland Museum of Antiquities, Leiden (135); K. P. Meteorologische Institut, Berlin (135); Naturhistorische Verein, Bonn (134); Turin Observatory, Académie Royale des Sciences, Turin (135); Prof. William Boyd Dawkins, Manchester, Eng.

Accessions to the Library were reported from the Mining Department, Melbourne, N. Z.; Geological Survey of India; K. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Wien; Académie des Sciences, Cracow; Botanische Verein der Provinz Brandenburg, Berlin; Naturforschende Gesellschaft, Freiburg, i.B.; Verein für Kunst und Alterthum, Ulm; Accademia R. delle Scienze, Turin; Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.; Agricultural Experiment Stations at Amherst, Mass., Providence, R. I., New Haven, Conn., State College, Pa., College Park, Md., Fayetteville, Ark., Lafayette, Ind., Starkville, Miss., Topeka, Kas., Lincoln, Neb., Laramie, Wyo., Tucson, Ariz.; Free Public Library, Jersey City; New Jersey Natural History Society, Trenton; Mr. Henry Phillips, Philadelphia; Director of the Mint, Commissioner of Labor, Washington, D. C.

The death of Dom Pedro d'Alcantara, December 4, 1891 (born December 2, 1825), was announced.

The Secretaries presented for the Proceedings a paper by Dr. A. S. Gatschet, entitled, "A Mythic Tale of Isleta," New Mexico.

New nomination, No. 1232, was read for the first time.

The Library Committee presented the following minute:

STATED MEETING, DECEMBER 12, 1891.

On motion of Dr. Greene, the Committee was authorized to report to the Society that in its opinion it was desirable that an appropriation of five hundred dollars should now be made for the purchase of books of reference.

After examining into the condition of the Library, the Committee was of the opinion that the work necessary to place the Library again in order, after its removal and storage, had been satisfactorily performed and was progressing properly. That the work necessary in that connection to be properly performed requires both time and care. That some delay had been occasioned by the necessity of giving greater accommodation for certain classes of the books than had been originally assigned to them.

So much of the communication as related to an appropriation of money was referred to the Committee on Finance.

Curator Morris made a statement referring to the condition of the cabinets of the Society and exhibited a number of objects, including a pantograph belonging to Thomas Jefferson. In conclusion he requested an appropriation of $300 for the ensuing year to enable the Curators to rehabilitate the collection.

On motion, the request was referred to the Committee on Finance.

The President reported that owing to the indisposition of the Treasurer, the Finance Committee had not been able to audit the accounts and to report appropriations for the coming year, but that they would be presented at the ensuing meeting.

Curator Morris moved that the Society request the return of the Poinsett collection from the Academy of Natural Sciences, where it is now on deposit, subject to call, and of the numismatic collection from the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia.

The matter was discussed, and Dr. Cope raised the point of

order that the Society had fixed 8.30 this evening for the consideration of the Report of the Committee on the Publications of the Society and that the time had passed.

He therefore requested the report should be taken up and considered.

Curator Morris then withdrew his motion.

The report referred to was then presented by Dr. Cope.

The President stated that he had received a letter from the Treasurer on the subject of the finances of the Society, and asked the pleasure of the Society if it should be read.

Dr. Frazer moved that the letter of the Treasurer be read after the debate had taken place.

Dr. Morris rose to a point of order that no report had been presented to the Society or received by it; that before resolutions be considered there should be a report before the Society.

The President stated his impression as to how the matter stood.

Dr. Morris calls for the reading of the report and asks for the information the Committee was instructed to report.

Dr. Cope states that he read to the Society the original report some months ago, since which time amendments have been made to it.

Mr. Dudley stated that in the absence of the Treasurer matters relating to the finances of the Society should not be pressed to a conclusion, and moved that the whole matter be laid over until the next meeting and be made a special order.

Dr. Frazer objects that the motion is not in order.

The President decided, no point of order could be taken pending the motion to postpone.

The vote being taken was decided in the negative, and the yeas and nays being called for, the vote stood for the motion, 4; against, 8. So the motion was lost.

Dr. Morris then called for the reading of the report of the Committee.

Dr. Cope states that the report he makes is the report of the Committee.

Dr. Morris asks if the report is in writing.

The President states all reports must be in writing.

Dr. Morris moves that the report be referred back to the Committee to report to the Society at the second meeting in January, 1892.

The President states that there is no continuous report, no full text, and that the matter as presented by the Chairman was disjointed and likely to lead to misapprehension. That a portion of the resolutions was out of order as affecting the laws of the Society.

Dr. Barker made some remarks.

The question being put on Dr. Morris' motion, the resolution was adopted.

And the Society was adjourned by the President.

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OF THE

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY,

HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

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☞ It is requested that the receipt of this number be acknowledged.

☞ In order to secure prompt attention it is requested that all correspondence be addressed simply "To the Secretaries of the American Philosophical Society, 104 S. Fifth St., Philadelphia."

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EXTRACT FROM THE LAWS.

CHAPTER XII.

OF THE MAGELLANIC FUND.

SECTION 1. John Hyacinth de Magellan, in London, having in the year 1786 offered to the Society, as a donation, the sum of two hundred guineas, to be by them vested in a secure and permanent fund, to the end that the interest arising therefrom should be annually disposed of in premiums, to be adjudged by them to the author of the best discovery, or most useful invention, relating to Navigation, Astronomy, or Natural Philosophy (mere natural history only excepted); and the Society having accepted of the above donation, they hereby publish the conditions, prescribed by the donor and agreed to by the Society, upon which the said annual premiums will be awarded.

CONDITIONS OF THE MAGELLANIC PREMIUM.

1. The candidate shall send his discovery, invention or improvement, addressed to the President, or one of the Vice-Presidents of the Society, free of postage or other charges; and shall distinguish his performance by some motto, device, or other signature, at his pleasure. Together with his discovery, invention, or improvement, he shall also send a sealed letter containing the same motto, device, or signature, and subscribed with the real name and place of residence of the author.

2. Persons of any nation, sect or denomination whatever, shall be admitted as candidates for this premium.

3. No discovery, invention or improvement shall be entitled to this premium, which hath been already published, or for which the author hath been publicly rewarded elsewhere.

4. The candidate shall communicate his discovery, invention or improvement, either in the English, French, German, or Latin language.

5. All such communications shall be publicly read or exhibited to the Society at some stated meeting, not less than one month previous to the day of adjudication, and shall at all times be open to the inspection of such members as shall desire it. But no member shall carry home with